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ABSTRACT

This monograph discusses the preparation, training, and future of the paraprofessional counselor and tries to assist the reader in developing an informed judgment as to the potential use of the paraprofessional--now and in the future. Important issues and problems of the paraprofessional are identified through research studies and existing practices. (Author/PC)

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Paraprofessionals In Human Services

AN ERIC/CAPS PERSPECTIVE ON THE PREPARATION, TRAINING AND FUTURE OF THE PARAPROFESSIONAL COUNSELOR

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With a Foreword by Garry R. Walz

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CONTENTS

FOREWORD - Garry R. Walz iv
CHAPTER ONE - INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW 1
  Introduction 1
  The Professional Versus the Paraprofessional 6
  Functions of Paraprofessionals in Educational Settings 12
    The Paraprofessional in the Classroom 12
    The Paraprofessional in Pupil Personnel Services 13
CHAPTER TWO - BACKGROUND AND DEVELOPMENT 20
  General Background and Development of the Paraprofessional Movement 20
  Paraprofessionals in Mental Health Fields 25
  Paraprofessionals in the Classroom 31
  Paraprofessionals in Pupil Personnel Services 38
    American Personnel and Guidance Association Role Statement for Support Personnel 40
    Report of the Interagency Task Force on Counseling, 1967 41
CHAPTER THREE - GUIDELINES FOR USING PARAPROFESSIONALS 46
  Selection 47
  Training 49
  Examples of Training Programs 55
  Supervision 58
  Evaluation 59
  Problems and Dangers 61

CHAPTER FOUR - PARAPROFESSIONAL PROGRAMS IN HUMAN SERVICES 65

PROJECT HELP, a Paraprofessional Program in Counseling 65

The Use of Teacher-Aides in Colorado Schools 68

The Elmont Project--Teacher-Moms for Troubled Children 71

The Use of Community Volunteers in the Elementary Schools 73

Student Volunteers as Freshman Counselors 79

Peer Counseling Offices at the University of Michigan 82

The Use of High School Students to Enrich an Elementary Guidance and Counseling Program 85

Using Teenagers to Supplement Casework 94

Training Parents as Drug Counselors in the Community 97

An Undergraduate Counselor Training Program 100

Short Models of Support Personnel Programs in Guidance 103

- The Guidance Assistant Project in Deerfield, Illinois 103
- Baker's Dozen Community Mental Health Center for Adolescents at Howard University, Washington, D.C. 104
- Volunteer Activities in Winnetka, Illinois Schools 104
- Training Programs for Support Personnel in Resource Centers and Guidance Offices 105

CHAPTER FIVE - PRESENT IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE TRENDS 106

Effects of the Paraprofessional Movement 106

- On the Paraprofessional 107
- On the Professional 109
- On Students 111
- On the School and the Administration 112

On the Community 112
On Professional Organizations and at the State Level 114
Future Trends 117
APPENDIX - American Personnel and Guidance Association: "Support Personnel for the Counselor: Their Technical and Non-Technical Roles and Preparation." 122
BIBLIOGRAPHY 130

FOREWORD—Garry R. Walz

Counselors today are faced with many forces and movements that may affect significantly their role and function. One such movement, the introduction of paraprofessionals or counselor aides into the guidance field, while unclear to date as to its force or direction of influence, clearly has the potential to enhance or detract from the efficacy of counseling services. Like a double-edged sword paraprofessionals may be instrumental in expanding the amount and the quality of counseling services; conversely, they may cut in the opposite direction, returning counseling to an earlier era of minimally trained personnel and enormous differences in the meaning and quality of available services.

It is probably appropriate to say that whether paraprofessionals are viewed as the beautiful or the damned is as much dependent upon the way they are prepared and responded to by existing counselors and administrative personnel as by the qualifications of the paraprofessionals themselves. How judiciously counselors use the services of paraprofessionals will be a function of how well counselors understand the possibilities inherent in nonprofessional services and how well they prepare themselves (the fully credentialed counselors) for the changes in their own attitudes and activities which will be brought about by the incorporation of paraprofessionals into the guidance program. That the paraprofessional may enhance the expertise of counselors and cause them to acquire and develop skills which they previously had not possessed is a thought not totally unpleasant. That counselors may resist and/or reject the services of paraprofessionals out of feelings of insecurity and uncertainty is a thought both unpleasant and discouraging.

This monograph was prepared with a mind to helping counselors image the impact of paraprofessionals on counselors' role and function as well as on the community they serve. It is neither an eloquent testimony for, nor a severe polemic against, paraprofessionals. Rather, the monograph tries to assist the reader to develop an informed judgment as to the potential use of the paraprofessional--now and in the future. It acquaints the reader with the historical antecedents of the paraprofessional movement, suggests principles involved in selection and training of support personnel, reviews their use in a variety of settings, considers the impact of their services on existing programs of counselor preparation, and projects and images what they can become and how they can contribute to the total counseling program.

It informs the reader of important issues and problems as they have been identified through research and existing practices without presuming to decide for the reader what his or her response should be, and is, in short, a body of information analysis to which we are pleased to attach the label "ERIC/CAPS." The monograph is, in my judgment, an overview of a current thrust in guidance which is initiating and facilitating of both thought and action. If my judgment is borne out, we will feel that our original goal in undertaking this project has been fulfilled.

I wish to commend the authors for their work--Wendy Suss for creating the original draft, Sherry Davidson for subsequent additions and revisions, and especially Libby Benjamin for bringing it all together and developing it into its present form. I also wish to express my appreciation to the personnel at Central ERIC for their recognition of the need for this project and their resourcefulness in finding the funds to make it possible.

Garry R. Walz
Director, ERIC/CAPS

CHAPTER ONE—INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

INTRODUCTION

The paraprofessional concept represents an effort to expand, humanize and personalize a number of professional services. The paraprofessional or nonprofessional is a noncredentialed worker who performs either the same or similar tasks as the professional, functioning in various capacities within a wide variety of settings.

Attempting to define the role of the professional and determine the parameters of the role of the paraprofessional is a topic that has been frequently written about and widely debated in recent years. The use of personnel who are not fully qualified as professionals but who perform many of the tasks that were formerly the sole responsibility of professionals is well known in social work and health services. Hospitals, welfare agencies, mental institutions, settlement houses, in-patient and out-patient clinics and convalescent homes have long employed nonprofessionals for custodial care and for the simpler, more routine duties which require little training or education except that which can be provided on the job. Paraprofessionals have also functioned for a number of years in the classroom, and their presence and help has enabled teachers to assume more the role of manager of the learning environment and designer of the educational program than simply the agent of instruction. The development of the role of the paraprofessional counselor, however, has been the cause of a dilemma, perhaps because the role of the professional counselor is still emerging and counselors are apt to view nonprofessional participation in counseling functions as a threat to the profession. Because the controversy concerning the use of paraprofessionals in recent years has centered on the area of pupil personnel services, the primary focus of this paper will be directed toward the use of nonprofessional personnel in counseling and guidance, with some attention given to their employment in other settings.

The main purpose of this report, then, is to investigate the role of the paraprofessional counselor, reviewing the factors that have led to the emergence of the need for such persons; examining a number of programs that utilize the services of nonprofessional guidance personnel; suggesting some guidelines that research suggests are important in selecting, training and evaluating paraprofessionals; discussing the effects on professionals, institutions, and the persons themselves of their employment as workers in the counseling field; and taking a look at the future of the paraprofessional movement in pupil personnel services.

Because the paraprofessional movement in counseling derives its origins from many of the same forces which brought aides into teaching and mental health settings, this report includes a brief history of the background and development of those fields as well. It is believed that an exploration of the mainsprings of the paraprofessional concept in general will contribute meaningfully to the understanding of its specific application to pupil personnel services.

Paraprofessionals in pupil personnel services are nonprofessional individuals, not including the secretarial staff, who assist with guidance activities. Such individuals have also been referred to as nonprofessionals, subprofessionals, support or auxiliary personnel, aides or assistants. The kind of persons who perform paraprofessional roles in counseling and personnel programs, as well as in other professional settings, varies tremendously. Such nonprofessionals may be parents, students, community volunteers, or lay persons with varying levels of experience; they may come from the ranks of the very poor or the upper classes; they may be college graduates or elementary school dropouts; they might be of any ethnic origin. In addition, the functions performed by these persons vary with the design of the program in which they are employed and may range from reviewing data to performing one-to-one counseling services.

Paraprofessionals are employed to provide a service, without regard to certification or previous educational attainment, and are thus considered nonprofessional workers. The term "nonprofessional," however, does not mean "unprofessional." Although not officially certified or highly educated, the paraprofessional in any profession may carry out his or her responsibilities in a completely professional manner. Therefore, when used in this report, the term nonprofessional is meant to be synonymous with the term paraprofessional.

The nonprofessional or paraprofessional is usually in contact with or under the supervision of a credentialed professional, and his or her addition to the staff often means an alteration in the traditional professional role. As a result of a number of factors, including the orientation of the professional staff to the program, the role assigned to the paraprofessional, the facility with which the aide performs that role, and the attitudes of existing professional staff toward the newcomer, the paraprofessional may be viewed as a strong asset or a threat to the credentialed professional. An attempt will be made in this study to explore the relationship of the paraprofessional to the professional and to assess the effects of that relationship on the persons involved.

This study is not an attempt to praise or promote paraprofessionalism in counseling services; rather, it is an attempt to examine the paraprofessional movement, considering it in light of its possible benefits as well as its potential disadvantages. Though strong rationale might be given to support the use of paraprofessional workers, statements of serious disapproval or doubt are also found throughout the literature; and evaluative studies of programs employing paraprofessionals show mixed results. In fact, many of the programs intended for study dissolved before follow-up investigations could be made. This report will examine what research findings exist in regard to assessment of program outcomes.

It is interesting to note that noncertified individuals have for centuries fulfilled counseling function--friends, parents, doctors, lawyers, teachers, ministers, missionaries have served as helping persons for those in need. Tyler (1969) speaks to this fact when she observes that every day parents counsel their children, roommates share concerns and problems, friends offer understanding and support to one another. The development of formal programs to capitalize on this very natural relationship and thus to expand the human services in school settings, however, is of recent enough origin to cause considerable differences in program implementation. A portion of this report is devoted to descriptions of several programs that have been developed to utilize the services of varying groups of people--teachers, mothers, peer groups, students as workers with younger students, and other lay persons in the community.

Programs using paraprofessionals develop in response to the needs of the community and of the persons for whom they are designed and thus differ in respects other than the type of person performing the service. For example, budget restrictions have considerable impact on the kind of program that will be implemented in a particular setting. Because in many communities money is not always available to hire an adequate number of professionals or support personnel, community members volunteer their time, realizing that the training and actual time spent at work may be equivalent to those of a regular job. Despite the fact that they utilize some of the same practices, these programs involving volunteer aides are sometimes differentiated from paraprofessional programs in that the volunteers are not considered to be performing an occupational role in the literal sense. However, because the tasks are often similar or identical to those performed by paraprofessionals, several volunteer programs have been included in the descriptions.

THE PROFESSIONAL VERSUS THE PARAPROFESSIONAL

In the fields of the human services, certification or licensing is the standard method of determining that one has become a professional. Within the wide variety of roles helping persons may perform, however, differing viewpoints exist regarding such things as how professionals should be defined, what standards should be stressed and maintained, what kind of training should be required, and who should be allowed into the profession. Each state outlines different requirements for certification of teachers, counselors, psychologists, lawyers, physicians; certification in one state rarely satisfies the requirements in any other state. With such variance in determining criteria for professionalism, then, it is no wonder that those institutions employing paraprofessionals, as well as persons responsible for their training and preparation or who are in the professions themselves, are having difficulty in defining and outlining the role of nonprofessionals.

Some agreement has been reached as to the characteristics that are common to professionals in general, which Brammer and Shostrom (1968) have described in the following way:

1. Skills and procedures
2. Definite sequences and standards of training
3. Societies and journals that are dedicated to the advancement of the profession
4. A planned research program
5. Certification and licensing

6. A code of ethics
7. A working relationship with other professions
8. Professional freedom

The authors also note the importance of personal characteristics in the case of counselors or therapists. They believe that although the areas of attitudes and personality are difficult to assess, they merit considerable attention for a person wishing to enter these professions. Professional training for the counselor, according to the authors, should include the development of techniques and skills in communication, test administration and interpretation, sociometrics, and counseling.

Much research has been conducted as an attempt to determine the characteristics that are common to professional counselors. Regardless of the method or procedure used, results indicate that the differences between the persons of counselors are greater than differences in the techniques used by counselors (Tyler, 1969). Thus, increasing time is being devoted to the study of what a counselor is rather than of what he or she does, which has led to attempts to determine what personal characteristics are optimal in a counselor. Tyler states that if we dismiss the idea that one standard relationship should exist in every counseling encounter, then we must also give up the requirement that a counselor be any one type of person. Most educators believe that a counselor should be as free as possible of internal conflicts; others feel that a counselor who has conflicts is better able to understand conflicts in others.

Tyler suggests that a good counselor might have any personality pattern which permits the development of a deep and satisfying relationship with others.

A greater consensus exists about how professional counselors should be trained than about how they should be selected or what services they should provide. This is probably due to the fact that counselor educators must make certain decisions about courses and programs, whereas decisions about selection and use of personnel can be made individually and according to community or school requirements.

As far as personal characteristics, method of selection and type of service are concerned, there is little to separate the paraprofessional from the ranks of the professional. What are the factors, then, that distinguish the two?

One factor is graduate training, which requires the intellectual capacity to comprehend abstract concepts in areas such as educational philosophy, personality theory and statistics. In 1964 the Committee on Professional Preparation and Standards of the American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA, 1964) published guidelines for counselor certification, recommending that the professional counselor have a Master's degree including two years of graduate work. The graduate program should be designed so that the counselor will emerge with a broad educational background that has exposed him or her to various disciplines and thought; a basic knowledge of psychology, including principles, theories, and research techniques relevant to counseling; a mastery of procedures and skills involved with counseling;

and an understanding of the environment in which the counselor will work. The Committee further recommended supervised counseling experiences including laboratory work such as practice in test administration, practicum involving actual counseling, and a full-time internship program in a school or agency.

The counselor who continues his or her professional development in a doctoral program becomes familiar with research-based psychological knowledge and learns how to plan and carry out scientific investigations. Graduate students are chosen for personal qualities as well as intellectual characteristics.

Paraprofessionals are generally selected on the basis of personal attributes, and then through special training acquire the skills and competencies necessary to provide guidance services. They are not expected to demonstrate as profound a knowledge or understanding of philosophy, theory or statistics as the professional; yet it is precisely the lack of that knowledge and understanding that prohibits the paraprofessional from becoming a professional.

Some states and agencies have attempted to provide alternate ways through which people might enter the counseling profession--for example, a number employ teachers as part-time counselors. Many states, although they may specify a Master's degree as a requirement for counselors, do not require a two-year organized program as outlined by the APGA standards. Agencies for the unemployed, the delinquent, or the disabled often employ personnel with less training than described in the APGA statement. By designing and implementing their own training programs, these agencies may even acquire special state certification.

Varying opinions exist with regard to the employment of nonprofessionals in guidance programs. Support has come from professional organizations, such as the American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA, 1967) and the American Psychological Association (Warnath, 1967), as well as state legislatures and state-level educational agencies. The Federal government has awarded grants for training support personnel (Leland _et al_, 1969; Muto, 1968); and a large number of school districts, community organizations, and professional staff members have responded positively to the use of nonprofessionals in public school services. In addition, several studies (Carkhuff and Truax, 1969; Hadden, 1969; Hallowitz and Riessman, 1967) bear out the fact that persons of similar intelligence and educational level and from like socio-economic class often relate better to one another than do those of widely disparate backgrounds. Carkhuff (1969) also found in a study of helping relations that two-thirds of a group of patients treated by professional therapists improved, but so did two-thirds of a control group of untreated patients. This author goes on to suggest that we look at the help the untreated group probably received from friends, co-workers, families or other concerned individuals. Such findings lend support to the use of the services of paraprofessionals in helping professions.

Many critics and opponents to the paraprofessional pupil services movement, however, may be found. Jesse Gordon (Gordon, 1965) has written about the negative implications of Project CAUSE (Counselor Advisor University Summer Education), expressing some general concerns regarding use of paraprofessionals. This Project, one of the first of its kind, was established in 1964 to train people during an eight-week period to serve as Counselor Aides in the Job Corps or Employment Service youth programs (Odgers, 1964) and created a controversy over the legitimacy of hiring counselors without standard professional training. Along with the furor, however, Project CAUSE and similar programs made people aware that counselors were needed in far greater numbers than graduate programs could be expected to produce (Tyler, 1969). As a result, the concept of utilizing the services of auxiliary personnel in the counseling profession began to gain support.

The APGA furthered this movement by issuing a statement legitimizing the functions of counselor aides in both direct and indirect services to clients (APGA, 1967). Direct services include functions such as interviewing and leading group discussions--indirect services, such activities as the gathering and processing of information. The APGA guidelines for the training of support personnel are broad and nonspecific and allow for generous individual interpretation. It is stated, for example, that training should include the opportunity to work under the field supervision of professionals but that the duration of preparation for support personnel will be "fairly brief... a matter of weeks or months, compared to years (for the counselor)." (Ibid) Because it formalizes in an official statement the methods by which individuals may gain entry into counseling positions, this recognition of a support personnel group by a professional organization lends a professional status to the paraprofessional counselor. This statement also broadens the avenues through which a person may enter the counseling profession and thus legitimizes expansion of the supply of needed personnel.

FUNCTIONS OF PARAPROFESSIONALS IN EDUCATIONAL SETTINGS

An important challenge that professionals within the schools face is the division of professional roles into subprofessional classifications or subroles that might be filled by persons who lack professional training. The problem is not too difficult in classroom settings where tasks are rather specific and clearcut, but in the area of pupil personnel services it assumes far more complexity because the role of the professional counselor is still in the process of being defined. Whether the paraprofessional is to be used in the classroom or in the area of pupil personnel services, however, the goal is the same: that of providing broader and more effective services to the population served by the school.

The Paraprofessional in the Classroom

Specific functions of the teacher aide have been described extensively in the literature; for a detailed review of specific activities the reader is referred to DeHart (1968). Teacher aide is the term most commonly used to name the role in the classroom; but aides are also described as teacher helpers, lay assistants, nonprofessionals, assistant teachers, auxiliary personnel, and paraprofessionals. Generally speaking, their tasks are assigned at the discretion of the teacher, and recent programs are using the services of paraprofessionals more and more in instructional areas.

The Paraprofessional in Pupil Personnel Services

Specific roles and functions of support personnel in pupil services are frequently not clearly defined due to the relative newness of the concept. Increasingly, however, efforts are being made to clarify ways in which such personnel might be used. One distinction which is often found useful in the development of role statements for paraprofessionals is whether the activities are of direct or indirect service to the clients. Much disagreement exists as to whether direct services of the paraprofessional, those requiring interface with clients, should be similar to those of the professional. Some persons believe that activities for the paraprofessional should be restricted to indirect services. Others believe that any professional service may be performed by a paraprofessional. Zimpfer (1971) suggests a carefully planned team approach in which subprofessionals assume only certain parts of the helping process while under the direction of the professional.

APGA, in its policy statement, lists 32 suggested activities for support personnel. These are grouped as follows:

1. Direct helping relationships:
    a. Individual interviewing function
    b. Small group interviewing or discussion function
2. Indirect helping relationships:
    a. Information gathering and processing function
    b. Referral function
    c. Placement function
    d. Program planning and management function

According to a survey by Zimpfer (1969) school counselors expressed an eagerness to use support personnel according to the APGA outline. However, because of need, many of the counselors were actually using support personnel only in the clerical and custodial functions of their offices.

Another effort at classifying the duties of the paraprofessional in pupil personnel services is the work of the Committee on Support Personnel for Guidance in the Schools of the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (Zimpfer, 1971). This Committee surveyed existing programs and the attitudes of support personnel, guidance supervisors in State Departments of Education and school counselors and came up with a series of recommendations for selection, training and use of nonprofessionals.

Fredrickson (In Zimpfer, 1971), working in a local school project funded by the Education Professions Development Act, constructed lists of tasks divided according to areas of professional responsibility listed by the American School Counselor Association (1964) and then divided the possible tasks within these categories into three levels of complexity. Listed below are some examples of activities at the three levels:

A. Planning and development of the guidance program

Level 1 Check supplies of standard forms and fill out routine orders for supplies.

Level 2 Become familiar with equipment used in electronic data processing.

Level 3 Supervise and coordinate activities of clerical or other personnel who are under the supervision of a counselor.

B. Counseling Activities

Level 1 Type reports of case conferences.

Level 2 Record group interactions or become a discussion leader of a group (with counselor's approval).

C. Pupil Appraisal

Level 1 Type reports of conferences.

Level 2 Identify students whose test results show discrepancies with school achievement.

Level 3 Interview a student to obtain factual information.

D. Educational and occupational planning

Level 1 Maintain an occupational information file.

Level 2 Secure follow-up information of a routine nature.

Level 3 Help students to obtain information on financial aid.

In order to find out what paraprofessionals were doing in college counseling centers, the Task Force on Paraprofessionals in the Counseling Center, established in 1971, polled 135 directors of college counseling centers at the 1971 Annual Conference of University and College Counseling Center Directors at the University of Missouri (Crane and Anderson, 1971). Questions were asked regarding the possible uses of paraprofessionals, the types of people employed as paraprofessionals, the types of services performed, and the training, supervision, and payment. Almost all of the centers polled were at public and private four-year universities and colleges. Sixty-three directors responded, giving information concerning their use of paraprofessionals. Of these, 60% reported that they were using undergraduates as paraprofessionals.

The following results were found regarding the services offered by the paraprofessionals (see following page):

Paraprofessional Service	Number of Centers
1. Crisis center or "hot line" telephone service	11
2. Study skills help	8
3. Drop-in center and peer counseling	7
4. General advising and information services	4
5. Clerical work on research	3
6. Companion or befriending programs	2
7. Leading or co-leading groups	2
8. Sex and birth control counseling and information	2
9. Relaxation training and desensitization	1
10. Co-leading communication skills workshops	1
11. Support service for campus minorities	1
12. Occupational information assistance	1

In a later study Crane and Anderson (1971) polled counseling center directors regarding their attitudes toward the use of paraprofessionals in the centers. They also attempted to determine which activities directors believed should be performed by paraprofessionals under the supervision of a professional counselor. They defined a paraprofessional as a worker who had completed a minimal preparatory training period (6-8 weeks) and had engaged in inservice training with adequate supervision.

Those activities which were likely to receive the approval of the director were:

1. Tutoring disadvantaged students
2. Being a 'big brother' to the disadvantaged
3. Doing freshman orientation counseling
4. Functioning as a research assistant
5. Counseling students with study problems
6. Administering the Strong Vocational Interest Blank
7. Working on an emergency telephone service
8. Counseling students with problems in adjusting to college

Those activities which were likely to evoke disapproval from the directors were:

1. Counseling students with sexual problems
2. Counseling students with marriage problems
3. Counseling students with symptoms of pathology

4. Administering or interpreting the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale or the Rorschach Diagnostic Test

From these studies it may be seen that the division of professional roles into subroles that may be filled by persons who lack professional training is not an easy task, and the level of functioning for support personnel will be dependent not only on the skills of the persons themselves but also on the attitudes of employing institutions.

Summary

Programs involving the use of the services of nonprofessionals are not new to many professions, but their introduction into the field of pupil personnel services has occurred only in the past few years. The recency of the appearance of paraprofessional counselors has created a need for making some judgments about such issues as how they should be selected, what kind of training they should undergo, by what means they should be evaluated, and the kinds of functions they should or can perform. The fact that professional counselors are still in the process of defining their own role has contributed to the difficulty of role definition for paraprofessionals. Several surveys have been undertaken to assess current attitudes and practices concerning support personnel, and a few professional organizations have offered recommendations or guidelines for consideration by employing institutions. The paraprofessional counselor is an emerging phenomenon and is the cause of considerable debate and disagreement in professional circles.

CHAPTER TWO—BACKGROUND AND DEVELOPMENT

GENERAL BACKGROUND AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE PARAPROFESSIONAL MOVEMENT

The use of paraprofessionals in human services can be traced back to the Hull House and Henry Street settlements during the early part of this century. Later, a number of the New Deal programs, such as the Social Security Act of 1935, the Works Progress Administration, and the National Youth Administration, utilized paraprofessionals. During this post depression period, as part of efforts to stem the rising tide of unemployment and to find new sources of manpower, out-of-school youth and potential school drop-outs were trained and placed in the fields of health, education, recreation, welfare, correction, and the arts. The 1940 report of the NYA showed that 13,000 people were employed in this way. New sources of manpower were also sought through the upgrading of workers. For example, state mental health programs in California and Maryland included special training for psychiatric aides to broaden and enhance their skills.

During the 1950's, when the shortage of teachers and persons in health and social work settings was critical, women with some college education but without formal professional training were pressed into service. Efforts were made to use indigenous workers, or workers from among the groups of people to be served. Examples of this were the New York State Youth Board's "Club Project" and several health-education programs serving Indians, Canadian Eskimos, and migrant workers in Florida. These efforts continued in programs such as Philadelphia's "Great Cities School Improvement Project" and Pittsburgh's "Team Teaching Project," both begun in the early 1960's. Throughout this period, however, the trend was toward recruitment of persons from middle class backgrounds to supplement the work of professionals.

The "New Careers Movement" provided impetus for the paraprofessional idea. The term is derived from the book New Careers for the Poor: The Nonprofessional in Human Services by Arthur Pearl and Frank Riessman (1965). Representing an innovative and socially conscious approach to the use of paraprofessionals, the movement was a response to the following developments:

1. The increasing gap between the expanding need for educational services and the availability of professionals to meet these needs during the 1960's.

2. The need for teachers to function in a more complex role as a result of new dimensions in educational concepts and technology.

3. The heightened awareness of communication blocks often existing between middle-class professionals and disadvantaged children.

4. An increased concern for the plight of the poor and undereducated and their need for opportunities for upward mobility.

5. The availability of new resources for school systems through the

Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO), the Manpower Development Training Act (MDTA), Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), the Nelson-Scheuer Amendment to the Poverty Act, and the Javits-Kennedy Act for Impacted Areas. All of these provided federal funds for the employment of disadvantaged people lacking traditional certification.

The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, which included a mandate for the hiring of community people, helped to expand the new careers concept. The Scheuer Amendment to the Act, added in 1966, led to the funding of programs that were characterized by the following: development of entry level employment opportunities, assurance of maximum prospects for advancement and continued employment, provision of a broad range of supportive services, and inclusion of educational and training assistance. Since then, more than 30 laws have established some 100 grant-in-aid programs which either incorporate or permit the new careers design. Programs funded by the Scheuer Amendment have involved over 17,000 trainees; and nearly 400,000 people have been employed by schools and by community action, health and welfare, law enforcement, recreation, and community development agencies.

Thus, the new careers efforts were not undertaken solely as a response to manpower shortages. The indigenous paraprofessional idea resulted from an attempt to provide a new pattern of instruction directed toward new educational goals. The indigenous workers were seen as persons who could exert considerable influence in the community through working in local institutions and programs. They were viewed as potential change agents who could help schools or other organizations or agencies become more representative of and responsive to the needs of their populations. The thrust of the movement was not simply to patch up institutions by filling manpower shortages but rather to change institutions and programs in a way that would be positive and meaningful for the people for whom they were created.

Use of indigenous paraprofessionals increased in 1963 as a result of funding of major programs under the President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime. One of these, the Mobilization for Youth (MFY), located in New York City's lower East Side, used older delinquents to work with younger delinquents, in addition to using indigenous workers in schools and community work. As a result of the MFY Frank Riessman (1965) made the first published call for what he termed "the new nonprofessional." At this same time the center for Youth and Community Studies at Howard University began to train young people from disadvantaged backgrounds as paraprofessionals in such fields as child and health care, community organization, recreation, and research.

In 1964 a large number of projects began to respond to the concept of utilizing indigenous nonprofessionals. The New York State Division of Youth's "Youth Worker Training Project" employed school drop-outs and rehabilitated offenders; the "New Careers Development Project" trained inmates in a California prison as program developers; and Project CAUSE, a summer program of the Department of Labor, trained nonprofessionals to staff Youth Opportunity Centers as counselor aides and youth advisors. In 1964 the Office of Economic Opportunity was established and soon became the largest employer of paraprofessionals. By 1965 approximately 25,000 paraprofessionals were functioning in community action programs and over 46,000 in Head Start programs. During the latter part of the 1960's a number of studies by the National Education Association revealed a widespread trend on the part of individual school districts to employ aides in educational settings.

At the beginning of this decade various national study commissions and Presidential advisory bodies identified areas in which nonprofessionals might perform needed public work. One such study (Sheppard, 1969) involved a survey of 130 cities as to the number and kind of work positions that could be filled by nonprofessionals in order to meet existing needs. The results of this study are listed below and may be considered to be limited in that they involve only municipal jobs as identified by chief executive officers of the 130 cities.

Nonprofessional Public Service Job
Possibilities

Category	Number
Antipollution enforcement	900
Education	39,134
Fire	5,390
General Administration	5,313
Health and hospitals	18,790
Housing codes and inspection	1,473
Library	3,159
Police	11,161

Recreation and parks	14,359
Sanitation	7,534
Urban renewal	7,800
Welfare	18,497
Total	140,689

From the above, it may be observed that the need for paraprofessional workers is extensive and covers a wide range of possible work settings.

PARAPROFESSIONALS IN MENTAL HEALTH FIELDS

Many factors developing over the past few years have heightened the awareness of concerned individuals that the mental health needs of this country cannot be met through existing professional manpower and methods of treatment. The breakdown of the nuclear family, the increase in the number of elderly people, the burgeoning population, the growing hordes of the poor have all contributed to a need for more mental health facilities and workers in the field. The unmet needs have become more apparent as a result of civil rights efforts and the war on poverty. In addition, feelings of alienation and impersonalization resulting from urbanization and technology have led to increased stress on human beings. Rising costs of medical care and the widening gap between the rich and the poor are making imperative the need for mental health facilities that are available to all, regardless of ability to pay for services. The need for more resources has been dealt with in part by the establishment of a nationwide network of community health centers, but staffing them remains an urgent problem.

Although volunteers have actually been used for many years in the mental health area, in the past such work has been characterized by a demeaning quality that has contributed to an uncommitted attitude on the part of the workers. A typical example is the psychiatric aide who works in a hospital setting doing supportive work with little or no training and little status. Recent efforts have been directed toward providing a new approach to the utilization of the paraprofessional or volunteer, including careful attention to selection, training and supervision. As a result, the last few years have seen a substantial growth in training programs, ranging from brief on the job experiences to two-year programs in community colleges.

Numerous changes in approaches and attitudes in mental health have led to and encouraged the development of new roles for nonprofessionals. A significant change has been the questioning and subsequent alteration of traditional methods of psychotherapy. Psychologists and other mental health workers are rejecting the traditional Freudian psychoanalytic approach which for so many years has dominated psychological theory and practice--that is, the necessity for a person to have an in-depth intellectual and emotional understanding of the historical antecedents of his or her problems. The breakdown of this traditional concept of psychotherapy has allowed for an expansion of the role of the psychotherapeutic agent and the creation of new and less highly skilled roles. It has permitted new segments of the population to participate in mental health treatment activities.

These changes in attitude are reflected in the kinds of services now performed by nonprofessionals. The "therapeutic community" features group and individual counseling, training in self-management for patients, and retraining in activities such as shopping, personal hygiene and communication with others. The nonprofessionals (psychiatric aides, ward attendants, recreational aides, and community volunteers) participate freely and are given extended contact with patients. Thus, for the nonprofessional, a change has occurred from performing purely custodial functions to involvement with rehabilitative functions. The paraprofessional has increasingly become an integral part of the mental health team.

Realization that long-term confinement may lead to increased difficulty with readjustment to community life has resulted in a trend toward shortening the period of hospitalization. Communities, in turn, have responded by creating more facilities within the community, including outpatient clinics and services and liaison persons who are often paraprofessionals.

A new method of treatment which focuses on "social competencies" provides rehabilitative service for those whose functioning has been impaired. This approach, which involves the development of skills needed for more efficient self-management, represents a significant change from traditional therapeutic goals. The people needed for implementing such an approach are those who can teach coping techniques through direct education, supportive help, and the provision of ego models. The self-help or social competency model has implications for paraprofessionals--in fact, these changing concepts of mental health and its treatment provide extensive rationale for the use of paraprofessionals in the field.

Another important change has occurred in the concept that traditional graduate education is the most effective means for training mental health workers. There is little evidence to suggest that graduate school training produces attributes which lead to success in helping people (Cowen, 1967). It is quite possible that natural empathy, understanding or other personal qualities of nonprofessionals might equal or excel those which the professional obtained through training. In a study by Poser (1966) the effectiveness of entirely naive college undergraduates as group therapists with chronic, hospitalized schizophrenics was compared with that of experienced professionals, primarily psychiatrists and social workers. The college students were untrained, had few psychology courses, and had no experience in the mental health field. The professionals were highly trained and qualified with many years of professional experience. Both groups of therapists were encouraged to promote interaction in their groups and received few restrictions. The effects of therapy, evaluated by a comprehensive battery of tests, showed that all treated subjects improved more than untreated ones. However, within the treated group, those patients seen by lay therapists registered greater gains than those seen by professionals. These changes proved to be stable over a three-year period. It was hypothesized that the critical factor may have been the interest, enthusiasm, and energy of the students. The Poser investigation encourages professionals to re-examine the importance of professional training and experience and reassess the potential for nonprofessionals in mental health treatment. This study by Poser, in addition to numerous other studies, provides evidence that people without professional training are able to provide meaningful, effective, and useful mental health services.

Manpower shortages, the reevaluation of jobs and qualifications for those jobs, and the recognition of the useful potential of nonprofessionals have contributed to an increased interest in employing paraprofessionals in mental health fields. In addition to these factors, the impact of budgetary realignments in Federal programs resulting in reduced funding for professional-level training, plus an increased emphasis on training programs for paraprofessionals, have added to the upsurge of paraprofessionals in the mental health field.

Specific examples of the benefits to be gained from using nonprofessionals rather than professionals in mental health fields have been described in recent literature (Stevenson and Viney, 1973). Studies have shown that the nonprofessional is better able to identify with patient life-styles and concerns, and is therefore able to provide patients with a more appropriate model for behavior. Often the paraprofessional is able to play a more active part in the life of the patient than the professional. In addition, paraprofessionals commonly bring fresh points of view to therapy programs and may be successful due to the enthusiasm and energy they bring to the therapeutic process.

The recent investigations of Rioch (Rioch, et al., 1963), Carkhuff (1968) and Carkhuff and Truax (1965) provide evidence of the effectiveness of paraprofessionals as treatment agents. The Adult Psychiatry Branch of the National Institute of Mental Health funded a Mental Health Counselors program in 1960 (Rioch, et al., 1963). The program was designed to provide low-cost psychological treatment for patients and at the same time to provide work for women with grown children who wished to contribute their services in a meaningful way. Eight women were chosen for the program, based on their successful child-rearing experiences and maturity. All had college educations and came from upper-middle-class status. They all participated in a two-year training program without pay or guarantee of a job at completion of training. The training was limited to psychotherapeutic techniques and emphasized on the job training. An evaluation of the therapy sessions of the trainees with adolescents at the conclusion of the program revealed positive results for the patients. Other programs, such as the Child Development Counselor's program at the Washington, D.C. Children's Hospital and the Albert Einstein College of Medicine, Mental Health Rehabilitation Worker's Project, successfully trained and used middle-aged women as helping persons.

The development of positions for nonprofessional staff personnel is a practical and substantive response to new concepts of treatment. The paraprofessional role might be seen as "additive" to that of the professional. Or the role of the paraprofessional might be viewed as unique in that the individual performs adjunctive tasks but may also be involved in new activities such as "reaching out" to isolated people, helping people in at-home settings, or providing primary social support.

The following typology of service functions for nonprofessionals in mental health (National Clearinghouse for Mental Health Information, 1969) provides a classification based on current practices:

1. The Caretaker Function: Providing physical care and supervision.
2. The Bridging Function: Acting as a connection between the person in need and sources of help.
3. The Sustenance or Social Support Function: Providing substitute personal relationships.
4. The Professional Assistant Function: Functioning as an aide or assistant in a closely adjunctive manner to and under the supervision of the professional.

PARAPROFESSIONALS IN THE CLASSROOM

During the 1950's aides were introduced into school systems as a solution to teacher shortages. Expansion of the use of nonprofessionals in the schools during the 1960's occurred as a result of the post-World War II baby boom and the passing of a series of anti-poverty programs. Following the funding of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, aides were to be found in increasing numbers in public schools.

Programs such as New York City's "Mobilization for Youth" (MFY), funded under the President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency, exemplified the new emphasis on the use of nonprofessionals.

The first major experiment in the use of nonprofessionals in American education occurred in 1953 in Bay City, Michigan (Gartner, 1971); and many people look on this project as a milestone in the paraprofessional movement. Yet some believe that the resistance created among teachers by the program impaired progress in the use of nonprofessionals in schools for at least a decade.

The project was funded by the Ford Foundation through a grant issued to Central Michigan State College of Education and was a joint project of the College and the Bay City school system. Increased enrollments in the schools had contributed to mounting pressures on teachers, and the purpose of the program was to increase their effectiveness by freeing them from jobs that might be performed by nonprofessionals. A study had shown that 69% of a teacher's time was spent in nonteaching chores.

The project employed eight college-trained women as teacher-aides. The Bay City school district and the Central Michigan State College of Education developed a program to train these teacher-aides that was soon adopted by over 50 other Michigan systems.

An evaluative study by the College revealed the following results:

1. Members of the teaching profession reacted negatively to the employment of aides because they believed that funds should be used instead to employ additional professionally qualified teachers.

2. Teachers with aides spent more time on instructional activities.

3. Little objective evidence was found regarding differences in the quality of of instruction between classrooms with teacher-aides and classrooms without aides.

4. The teacher-aides facilitated experimentation, though no noticeable evidence as to changes in teaching methods was found.

5. Little effect on overall costs was observed.

6. Many of the aides became potential recruits for teaching.

Subsequent to the Bay City project, other communities across the nation quickly followed suit, and by 1961 over 5,000 aides were employed in various educational settings.

A study conducted for the Office of Economic Opportunity by the Bank Street College of Education in 1966 (Bowman and Klopf, 1968) was based on a nationwide survey of the use of teacher-aides, teacher assistants, family workers, and other auxiliary personnel in the classroom. An important component of this study on the use of paraprofessionals in school settings was the coordination and analysis of fifteen demonstration training programs for auxiliary school personnel. An examination of the purpose of these training programs provides further enlightenment on the use of paraprofessionals in education. The sponsors of the projects believed that the introduction of more adults into the classroom would enhance the quality of education, increase the opportunity for individualized instruction and make possible less structure in in the classroom.

The adults for the projects were selected on the basis of their concern for children and their potential as supportive personnel, rather than on the basis of previous education. The trainees were from diverse cultural backgrounds--Navajo Indians from a reservation, low income whites from Appalachia, Blacks from a number of large cities, Puerto Ricans, and a variety of other groups. The belief supporting this kind of personnel selection was that individuals who had actually lived in disadvantaged areas might provide specific benefits for disadvantaged children. Such persons, having experienced alienation in the classroom might help these youngsters feel more comfortable in school settings, and might serve as models to motivate the children. It was believed that these paraprofessionals could serve as interpreters of children's behavior to other professionals, and that they might also interpret the ideas and goals of the school to the children and to their parents.

The study also notes several economic forces which contributed to the sharp increase in the employment of auxiliary personnel in the schools during the late 1960's, such as the following:

1. Changing and expanding needs for school services.
2. A shortage of professionals to meet these needs.
3. New dimensions in education which required a more complex and demanding role for teachers.

4. New awareness of the special needs of disadvantaged youngsters.

5. An awareness of the communication block which often exists between middle-class professionals and lower-class pupils.

6. The necessity of education for competition in an increasingly automated economy.

7. The availability of Federal funds for the employment of nonprofessionals.

The late 1960's have seen:

1. The passage of the Education Professional Development Act.

2. The utilization of over 200,000 pupil personnel workers in school settings.

3. Issuance of policies by several state Departments of Education and state Boards of Education pertaining to the use of paraprofessionals--for example, the California Instructional Aide Act of 1968 (State of California).

4. The involvement of professional education organizations (National Education Association, American Federation of Teachers) in researching and defining the role of the paraprofessional and becoming involved in organizational efforts of paraprofessionals. The research division of the NEA reported that teachers identified how to work effectively with aides as their number one training need. The American Association of School Administrators in a resolution concerning the use of nonprofessionals encouraged "...the employment of auxiliary personnel to free teachers from nonteaching duties." (AASA, 1967) The National

Association of Secondary School Principals recommended the use of instructional assistants and general aides who were defined as selected workers paid to do specific tasks (Fisher, 1968).

5. A proliferation of materials, guides and resources to assist in the implementation of programs.

Attempts to involve community persons more directly with the schools are increasing throughout the country. It is common to find ghetto parents demanding participation in school policy-making and planning to foster certain kinds of education for their children. The "Bundy Plan" in New York City is an example of an attempt to respond to this demand by using paraprofessionals to make the goals of the school more attuned to those of the community (Schmais, 1967).

Studies in Indiana, Minnesota, Michigan, Colorado and New York have examined the effects upon pupil learning of the use of paraprofessionals in the classrooms:

1. Studies in Minneapolis, Minnesota, as measured by pre-tests and post-tests using the Metropolitan Reading Readiness Test with 234 children, indicate that students in kindergarten classes with an aide made significantly greater gains in reading readiness, number readiness and total readiness than did matched pupils in classes without an aide (Minneapolis Public Schools, 1967).

2. In Greenburg, New York, performance of second graders in classes with aides was contrasted with that of classes without aides from the previous

year. Measures on the Metropolitan Achievement Test indicated the number of classes scoring above grade level increased from two to five. The classes scoring below grade level decreased from five to four. The outcomes were attributed to the use of teacher aides (NEA, 1969).

3. A Detroit, Michigan study of 4,905 paraprofessionals employed in Wayne County schools revealed that administrators and teachers believed the teacher aides were effective in improving the education of the children (Gartner and Schroeder, 1968).

4. In a Title III ESEA Program in Greeley, Colorado, pupil gains were attributed to the use of paraprofessionals (Cheuvront, 1968).

5. A tutoring project originated at Indiana University found positive effects on student performance in 50 projects throughout twelve states. The tutoring program involved a 21-hour training program for paraprofessionals to prepare them for tutoring first grade children for fifteen minutes a day (NEA, 1969).

6. In a student tutoring program in New York City in which older students tutored younger ones, those who were tutored gained 6.0 months as compared with a gain of 3.5 months for the control group (NEA, 1969).

The use of students as teacher aides is frequently identified as a cause for educational gains. The opportunities for cross-age learning include cross-age teaching, student-teacher learning teams, and the division of classes into sections. Improved learning results for the tutor as well as the tutored. The Educational Professions Development Act encourages these efforts, as do guidelines in numerous state Departments of Education.

There are strong indications from measurements in reading readiness and achievement that teacher aides trained in tutoring improve pupil performance (Riessman and Gartner, 1969). One program sponsored by the Mobilization for Youth (STAR-Supplementary Teaching Assistance in Reading) uses paraprofessionals to train parents to read to children; and this program, as well as others using aides or tutors, indicates significant pupil gains.

Evidence is also growing to the effect that the use of paraprofessionals allows teachers to improve their teaching. They have more time to give individualized instruction to children, to prepare lessons, and to improve the learning climate in the classroom (Ferver and Cook, 1968).

PARAPROFESSIONALS IN PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICES

The need for paraprofessional guidance workers became apparent as a result of the following developments:

1. Manpower shortages.

In 1967 the Interagency Task Force on Counseling (United States Department of Labor, 1967) reported that over 95,000 new counselor positions would be needed by 1971. About 60,000 people were estimated to be earning degrees and certificates in guidance and counseling during that time, leaving a deficit of 35,000 professional counselors.

2. Expanded role expectations.

The expanded role expectations for counselors revealed a need for paraprofessional workers. The new expanded role developed as a result of the following:

a. The awareness of the necessity for counselors to respond to the needs of increasingly diverse segments of society.

b. The demand for research and the need for data collection for that research.

c. The calling for counselors to translate into action increasing amounts of research results.

d. The availability of numerous new counseling techniques.

3. Awareness of new factors.

a. The realization that professional counselors may be less effective than paraprofessionals with certain populations.

b. Awareness that professional training is not necessarily the only prerequisite for becoming an effective counselor.

American Personnel and Guidance Association Role Statement for Support Personnel

In 1967 the American Personnel and Guidance Association adopted a policy statement on the role and preparation of aides in counseling. The statement gives a rationale for the use of support personnel in guidance and states guiding principles for role development, preparation and activities. The policy statement reads as follows:

> ...appropriately prepared support personnel, under the supervision of the counselor, can contribute to meet counselees' needs by enhancing the work of the counselor. The appropriate work of such personnel will facilitate the work of the counselor and make the total endeavor more effective. (APGA, 1967).

The APGA role statement suggests certain direct and indirect role functions for nonprofessionals. However, it does stress that the one-to-one or "direct" contact of a nonprofessional with a client is not the equivalent of the direct one-to-one professional counselor-client relationship.

Although not specifically defining the term "support personnel," the APGA statement does describe the concept in the following ways:

1. The concept of support personnel does not refer to consultative or referral relationships between the counselor and social workers, psychologists, or other helping professionals.

2. Support personnel function in a line relationship to counselors.

3. Career patterns differentiate counselors from support personnel. Support personnel jobs may or may not provide specific promotional possibilities. If support personnel wish to become professional counselors, they must meet

the necessary academic and personal qualifications of professional counselors.

4. Counselors perform the counseling function, whereas support personnel perform activities that contribute in other ways to the overall service.

5. Counselor activity involves synthesis and integration of parts of the total range of services, whereas the work of support personnel tends toward the particular. These persons may also specialize in one or more support functions.

6. Counselors base their performance on relevant theory and knowledge of effective procedures. Functions of support personnel are characterized by more limited theoretical background.

The statement distinguishes support personnel from clerical and secretarial personnel in two ways:

1. Job training: includes exposure to principles and practices of guidance through preservice, inservice, or on the job training.

2. Job tasks: more related to guidance functions than to clerical functions.

Report of the Interagency Task Force on Counseling, 1967

The Report of the Interagency Task Force on Counseling of 1967 (U.S. Department of Labor) was concerned with the problem of providing counseling and related services to those in need of such help. The task force was comprised of leaders in counselor education and professional guidance practitioners from a variety of settings. The views of the committee are reflected in the following statement:

> The primary work objectives of the counselor are to help the individuals he [or she] serves understand themselves and their opportunities better in order that they can formulate plans, decisions, and concepts of self which hold potential for more satisfying and productive lives, and to help them implement their decisions and plans. As a secondary and related objective, the counselor seeks to effect changes in the environment which are conducive to increasing individual opportunity for self-development. (Ibid, p. 28)

This statement, which sets the tone for the report, shows a definite potential for the use of support personnel, and the report makes frequent reference to the use of support personnel in counseling.

The main recommendation of the Interagency Task Force involved the need for rapid increases in the number of guidance counselors. In addition, the report revealed a concern for the strengthening of professionalism in counseling. It did note, however, that persons other than counselors might perform counseling functions. The Task Force recognized the use of non-professionals as support personnel and stated that such an approach should be "systematically and judiciously developed in federally supported counseling and guidance programs." (Ibid, p. 45) Stated as the basic reasons for the use of support personnel were the facilitation of services and the increase of the effectiveness and productivity of professional counselors.

The Task Force pointed out that the utilization of support personnel would create the need for new training and supervisory responsibilities for counselors. Although the employment of support personnel might result in a short term reduction in the demand for professional counselors, according to the report the long range result could not be foreseen as one of reducing the need or demand for professional personnel.

The report states that support personnel should work only in situations where they are under the direction and supervision of professional counselors. Professional counselors would be distinguished from support personnel by their levels of preparation and their "extensive knowledge...of program objectives and operations, extensive use of technical knowledge and skills...and considerable use of judgment." The Task Force stated that support personnel should be utilized in "...prescribed and limited procedures not requiring analytic judgment or interpretation." (Ibid, p. 47)

In a "policy of relevant professional organizations" the Task Force dealt further with the problem of support personnel. In this policy, the Task Force referred to the APGA role statement concerning support personnel, reproducing the report in its entirety and drawing attention to the concept statements made by APGA as to the differentiation of role and function between professional counselors and support personnel.

The Task Force foresaw potential competition, confusion, and conflict arising from the use of support personnel. As a result, it made the following recommendations:

> ...that legislation be proposed to establish a series of pilot, experimental, and demonstration projects to plan the preparation of, prepare, and appropriately use the services of counselor support personnel. (Ibid, p. 52)

It further recommended that an advisory panel of experts or consultants be appointed to review the subject and make recommendations. The Task Force was unwilling to go beyond making recommendations regarding the use of support personnel in counseling. Its members stressed the fact that decisions concerning such support personnel should remain under the control of the profession. In general the Task Force exhibited a cautionary view toward support personnel.

Neither of the two agencies most directly involved--the Department of Labor and the Department of Health, Education and Welfare--took action to draft the legislation which was recommended by the Interagency Task Force, despite the consensus of the Task Force that the recommended steps were urgently required to expand counselor manpower. Thus growing divergence occurred between government administrators and professional guidance leaders in their basic stance toward guidance and counseling.

In 1968, California became the first state to adopt specific legislation in behalf of support personnel in schools. The State's Instructional Aide Act of 1968 permitted the use of aides both for teachers and for other certified school personnel. New York State also adopted legislation which supported teacher aides (State of New York, 1969).

The 1970's are a time during which much thought and effort have been directed toward the humanization of helping services. Increases in technology have resulted in an awareness of the neglect of personal concerns and a general feeling of dehumanization in our society. Human services are seen as a way to cope with this problem. In 1970 the National Association of Pupil Personnel Administrators stated in a policy position paper, "Paraprofessionals, including aides, who are employees of the district, and volunteers can greatly increase the effectiveness of the human services." (Bobbitt, 1969)

Summary

Developed as a response to a combination of forces and pressures, the paraprofessional movement started early in this century in social work settings, gained momentum in post-depression years by expansion into other professional fields, spread into educational settings in the 1950's, and became widespread during the 60's and 70's. The paraprofessional counselor is the most recent addition to the movement and came into being as a result of manpower shortages, expanded role expectations for counselors, and a new awareness that the unique needs of large segments of the school's population were not being met through existing services.

The American Personnel and Guidance Association lent a certain "professionalism" to the concept by issuing a role statement for support personnel, stating that such persons have the potential for enhancing the work of the counselor. Since then a number of states have "legitimized" the utilization of nonprofessionals in schools by adopting specific legislation on their behalf.

CHAPTER THREE—GUIDELINES FOR USING PARAPROFESSIONALS

Various authors offer different guidelines for the use of paraprofessionals. The suggestions of Schmais (1967), which represent a reasonable consensus among those who have written on the subject, are presented here as useful for persons interested in programs using paraprofessionals.

1. Goals and objectives should be agreed upon, clear, and understood by all involved.

2. Adequate funding, staff time, training, and advancement opportunities should be provided.

3. The role and functions of the nonprofessional should be well-defined and described.

4. Recruitment of appropriate personnel should involve as many staff members as possible. Interviews with prospective employees might be conducted with all staff members present.

5. Screening and selection of nonprofessionals should be based on criteria that evolve from the goals of the program.

6. Training of paraprofessionals should include orientation, on the job training, and inservice education.

7. The paraprofessional program should include supervision. This might be provided by one individual for all nonprofessionals in a school, or it might be on a one-to-one basis between a professional and a paraprofessional.

8. Evaluation should be continuous and ongoing, both of the program and

of the performance and progress of the paraprofessional. Evaluation should be derived from the program--its goals, its workability, and its effects upon students, professionals, and the nonprofessionals themselves.

SELECTION

The selection of paraprofessional workers in education and the human services should be based on a set of criteria which are in line with the goals of the program. The procedures for selection may vary from one program to the next, yet general agreement exists as to the advisability of including as many staff members as possible in the process.

Riessman (in Guerney, 1969) suggests procedures for the selection of paraprofessional workers in New Careers programs. Riessman believes that the group method of interviewing can be used quite successfully in the selection of personnel. Not only is the group process economical in time, but more important, it permits the interviewers to observe how the candidates relate to other members of the group.

Riessman further states that the competitive nature in a group selection procedure may be somewhat reduced if certain measures are taken. The setting should be informal, possibly with refreshments available. The leader of the group, who is appointed before the session, should set a leisurely pace, allowing for ample warm-up time. The group size should be limited to ten people, and the seats should be placed fairly close together. The selectors should encourage all of the people to participate, but spontaneous interaction should be encouraged and is preferable to calling formally upon persons to contribute.

Other selection procedures might range from individual interviews to the completion of training courses at a certain level and proficiency. Zimpfer (1971) offers recommendations for the recruitment and selection of support personnel in guidance. He feels that the recruitment and selection policies should be determined by the following factors:

1. Both the nature of the support personnel program and the types of people to be recruited should be determined by local needs and priorities.

2. A job description and the criteria for the individual who is to perform the job should be available.

3. The selection criteria should include personality factors.

4. The pool of applicants should be as large as possible.

5. Publicity of the job opening should be widespread.

6. The counselor should be a part of the employment interviewing and selection process. A trial employment period might be useful in determining the best combination of support personnel and counselor.

7. Schools should consider people who might offer more than simple performance of routine functions, such as individuals who are culturally different or who possess special skills.

A variety of other selection procedures in possible. Each program should base its methods for selection on its own program needs. Examples of procedures for selection that have been implemented may be found in the section on paraprofessional program descriptions.

TRAINING

Training programs for nonprofessional workers should include the following:

1. Orientation
2. On the job skill training
3. Inservice education
4. Supervision
5. Followup

The American Personnel and Guidance Association role statement for support personnel (APGA, 1967) presents a model training program designed to implement the role conceptualization. A description of the preparation of such support personnel may be found in the APGA role statement in the Appendix.

Zimpfer (1971) states how the differentiation of tasks and levels for support personnel in guidance allows for the development of pre- and inservice training programs with specific goals and objectives. According to Zimpfer, the training of support personnel for school guidance programs is in its embryonic stage. Early efforts to formalize both the selection and training of support personnel have varied greatly, but all of the programs examined by the author combined classroom instruction with on-the-job training. Some of the programs, however, either encouraged or required the completion of graduate-level courses in counselor education, while others did not call for any professional course work.

Riessman (in Guerney, 1969) designed training programs for New Careers projects according to his belief that the traditional long training periods for paraprofessionals are unnecessary. This author believes that a training program should be combined with work, or "jobs first--training built-in." Accordingly, if most of the training is to take place during performance of the job itself, it is necessary that job functions be phased in slowly, giving the nonprofessional time to master each task before proceeding to the next one. This is referred to by Riessman as "phased training." Riessman suggests that any pre-job training be short and oriented toward enabling the paraprofessional to perform adequately the simple entry functions of the job. Phasing should be accomplished in such a way that in the beginning the nonprofessional will be expected only to perform limited tasks. The remaining skills should be learned through on the job training and systematic inservice training. According to this plan, the paraprofessional would be placed on the job as quickly as possible, working perhaps for part of a day and under close supervision.

Riessman believes that the significant training occurs on the job. In this way the aides learn from their own experiences, from one another, and from their supervisors. In addition he recommends that meetings be held to teach certain skills or to discuss general or specific problems.

The author points out the desirability of having one person responsible for selecting, training, and supervising the aide. This allows the aide to identify with one person and prevents the confusion which might arise from multiple leadership. Also, one or more consultants should be available for the trainers. Where factors do not allow for this one-to-one training relationship, a system of teams might be set up.

The professionals in a school or agency may volunteer to select, train, and supervise nonprofessional personnel. Some general suggestions might be offered regarding how the professionals might use the nonprofessionals, yet Riessman believes that it is usually best to allow the professionals to define the assignments and the working relationship.

Riessman makes the following basic recommendations for the training of nonprofessionals, especially in New Careers programs:

1. Trainers should anticipate competitive feelings toward professionals. They should not expect the nonprofessionals to identify with the poor.

2. The nonprofessionals should receive constant support and assistance from the supervisors who should be present or available at all times. Opportunity should be provided for the nonprofessional to exercise initiative and creative response, and the nonprofessional should be consulted about matters relating to the program, rules for its operation, and the like.

3. Efforts should be made to reduce competitive feelings among the paraprofessionals.

4. Continuous training should be provided to improve abilities in report-writing, filling out forms, making outlines, reading effectively, and other skills required by workers.

5. The training staff must clarify promotion procedures, indicating what is needed for advancement on the career ladder.

6. The nonprofessionals should be encouraged to form their own groups or unions. Such groups are important in enhancing feelings of status for the aides and contributing to positive identification with role and job.

7. The value of one-to-one relationships in training should be stressed. If it is not possible to assign all aides to professional workers, other persons might be used. Riessman found that experienced, trained nonprofessionals can be effective on a one-to-one basis in helping new nonprofessionals adjust to the requirements of the job.

8. Efforts should be made to lessen the anxiety levels of nonprofessionals which result from job ambiguity. These efforts might include the following:

a. Slow phasing of tasks

b. Careful definition of the job

c. Development of group support

d. Provision of specific training and evaluation with an emphasis on positive performance

e. Provision of continuous supervisory support and assistance

f. Frank discussions of program and role difficulties

Several institutions of higher education offer programs in which support personnel might enroll (Nerenberg, et al, 1969). One example that was reported by these authors was designed specifically for support personnel in guidance and is operated through a university. Another program trains aides in a variety of settings, using community college facilities and course offerings as part of its program.

Zimpfer (1971) has prepared an outline of activities which should be part of a training program for support personnel in guidance. The activities are divided according to the following major categories:

1. Human relations skills
2. Clerical and audiovisual skills
3. Guidance center skills

These areas are discussed by the author in detail and are simplified into the following chart (see following page):

Activities Within Parts
Of a Support Personnel Training Program*

Human Relations Skills

A. Listening
B. Observing
C. Articulating

1. Intra-personal dimension
2. Inter-personal dimension
3. Person to person via technology

Clerical - Audiovisual Skills

1. Typing
2. Duplication
3. Letter writing
4. Recording information
5. Telephone procedures
6. Filing
7. Audiovisual Equipment Operation

Guidance Center Skills (a sample)

1. Collection and display of occupational information
2. Dissemination
3. Test terminology
4. Recording student data
5. Job application procedures
6. Follow-up procedures
7. Structured interviews with parents
8. Class scheduling
9. Coordination of visits of college representatives

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*Reprinted by permission of David Zimpfer.

Merrill (1969) suggests that training programs for support personnel be organized in a way that offers potential for fully utilizing the skills and knowledge the individual brings to the job. Merrill also believes that training and use of support personnel should include opportunities for the support personnel to express their own feelings and ideas about the program. The professionals who are training the nonprofessionals might arrange meetings with a consultant who is responsible for the nonprofessionals. These meetings could provide an opportunity for discussing experiences, voicing concerns and obtaining advice or suggestions.

EXAMPLES OF TRAINING PROGRAMS

Example 1

Oregon State University (1969) sponsored an institute for the preparation and training of support personnel to assist counselors in disadvantaged elementary and secondary schools. The institute, funded by an EPDA grant, provided for the training of ten guidance aides during the summer of 1969. The program consisted of six weeks of preservice training, including both seminar and laboratory experiences, followed by a year of inservice training

One of the requirements of the program was that a team of three people from each school that was to be included in the program participate in the training together. The teams consisted of the counselor, the school principal, and the prospective counselor aide. Previous preparation was provided for the counselor in the role of supervisor; and the principal was aked to reevaluate his his or her own role concepts, in addition to conceptions held concerning the roles of the counselor and the counselor aide. The first phase included try ut activities in which the team worked together on projects planning a support personnel program for their school.

Selection of the schools for participation was based on the intent and willingness of the district to take part in the program. Aides were required to have a high school diploma. In addition, personal criteria for selection of aides included high moral character, the ability to relate well to and communicate with the population of students in the school in which the aide would be working, evidence of dependability based on past work experience, responsibility, initiative, and cooperativeness. The expectation was, too, that these aides might later become professionals in counseling.

Example 2

This training project included 99 persons who had been selected for an ESEA Title III program for training the "school associate" during the year 1967-68 (Educational and Cultural Center Serving Onondaga and Oswego Counties). The enrollment was limited to people who were high school graduates, showed a commitment toward a career line program, were already employed in some supportive capacity in the Onondaga and Oswego County school districts in New York State, were working with a professional "sponsor teacher," and had attained a certain level of performance on standardized tests.

All of the participants were women, and their training involved core training, in-service workshops, and optional college credits. The core training consisted of:

1. Orientation - one session
2. Audio-visual procedures - eight sessions
3. Child-development - six sessions
4. Tests and measurements - six sessions
5. An orientation to the second year of the project.

Four workshops held over the period of a year served as forums for the expression and exchange of ideas among administrators, teachers, and support personnel. In addition, college-level courses were arranged at the Onondaga Community College. Those who participated in the courses were reimbursed for the cost of tuition. Some applied their earned credits toward an associate degree.

The project emphasized the crucial importance for each support person to develop a close working relationship with the sponsor teacher, and the staff made themselves available for team, group and individual counseling. Of the total group of participants, seven were employed as guidance support personnel; others became teacher aides, resource center aides, and support personnel in other school functions.

The project continued through a third year, during which 54 support personnel maintained their enrollment. The following were the reasons persons left the program:

1. Refusal of a school district to allow the trainee to continue training
2. Change of residence
3. Acquisition of the necessary skills for a job with resultant employment
4. Enrollment as a full-time student in college

SUPERVISION

Zimpfer (1971) makes the following recommendations in regard to the supervision of support personnel in guidance programs:

1. Only one person, preferably the counselor, should provide immediate supervision. Such supervision might include task assignment, counseling, supportive assistance, and needed inservice training.

2. The supervising counselor should hold periodic conferences with the support personnel team, during which times the team might evaluate past activities and make preparations for future events. Such conferences should focus on how the counselor-support personnel team might best facilitate the growth and development of the students in the school.

3. The supervisor should attempt to guard against the inappropriate use of support personnel in duties that are unrelated to their guidance jobs.

4. The APGA role statement for support personnel suggests that they might be utilized to supervise clerical personnel. If such assignments are made, they should be handled carefully by a professional supervisor, since

rivalries based on tenure or status might occur.

The supervisor of the paraprofessional has major responsiblility for creating and maintaining an environment in which the paraprofessional can work effectively (Bobbitt, 1969). This includes fostering a climate of acceptance on the part of other staff members which is conducive to the full development of the nonprofessional. The supervisor is also responsible for seeing that necessary supportive activities are provided, and for insuring that the paraprofessional has adequate space and the necessary equipment for carrying out his or her duties.

EVALUATION

Each paraprofessional program should be evaluated according to the criteria for achievement of program goals that were established at the outset of the program. The paraprofessional should be supervised and evaluated according to the functions that have been defined for that particular worker.

The evaluation process may be closely linked with the process of supervision. Yet in programs where the training process is one of on the job training and close supervision, such as in those programs advocated by Riessman, the supervision would become more a part of training than of evaluation. Such programs are wary of evaluation per se, for this function is likely to impair the relationship between the paraprofessional and the supervisor. Programs of this sort would stress a continual process of close supervision, advice-giving and support, and would probably not include a formal process of evaluation of the trainee. There would, however, be evaluation of the total program.

In other types of programs in which trainees undergo a preservice training period, evaluation criteria and processes would probably be more formal, but evaluation methods would differ greatly depending on the program. College training programs might evaluate trainees according to their performance in classes. Other programs might establish lists of various kinds of criteria by which to conduct evaluations. The majority of the paraprofessional evaluation processes, however, indicate agreement on certain basic factors of importance. Generally, it is agreed that evaluation should be a continuous process; should be concerned with both the performance and the progress of the nonprofessional; and should be based upon program goals, the workability of the program, and the effects of both the program and the nonprofessional upon students, professionals, and the nonprofessionals themselves.

The area of supervision and evaluation is one in which conflicting viewpoints exist. Programs which extend the greatest responsibility and independence to the paraprofessional tend to deemphasize supervision and evaluation and are likely to have mutual professional-nonprofessional evalutions. Other programs which accord the paraprofessional less responsibility and operate on the belief that he or she needs constant guidance and assistance are more apt to stress the importance of close supervision and thorough, periodic evaluation of paraprofessionals.

PROBLEMS AND DANGERS

A variety of problems may arise in attempting to implement paraprofessional programs in schools.

1. For school administrators. Administrators will find themselves faced with such decisions as establishing fiscal policies; setting up new hierarchies for positions; determining job descriptions, titles, salaries, increments and training requirements; determining who will train the nonprofessional.

2. For teachers, guidance counselors, supervisors. Such professionals are frequently concerned with the maintenance of professional standards and are fearful that administrators will assign nonprofessionals tasks that require professional skill. Teachers also want to be sure that class size will not be increased as a result of the addition of nonprofessional workers. Professionals are concerned that adequate school time be set aside for planning with and evaluation of the nonprofessionals. Some feel apprehensive about the presence of another adult in the classroom or counseling office.

Gordon (1965) states that both the institution and the professional must clearly identify the way in which they intend to incorporate support personnel. Warning against using paraprofessionals in full counseling (or teaching) capacities, which he believes should be reserved for professionals, Gordon sees a potential danger in using nonprofessionals in activities that require the expertise of fully trained personnel. In addition Gordon, along with Fisher (1968), suggests that use of paraprofessionals might have the effect of diluting professional standards.

3. For support personnel. Many nonprofessionals are self-conscious about differences in their backgrounds and speech patterns. Some are resentful over the fact that they work as many hours and often at the same tasks as professionals and yet receive less pay. Support personnel sometimes are uncertain about their role definitions, and the lack of an established procedure for occupational advancement and promotion.

On a broader scale, specific practices may develop that pose a threat to the entire concept of paraprofessionalism as it has been ideally conceived and implemented. Such practices include the following:

1. The paraprofessional may be absorbed by the educational system and provide services that are only more of the same, without being allowed to contribute to change in attitudes or methods of dealing with students, thereby perpetuating the system.

2. The paraprofessional may be used as a one-way communicator to the community, representing and supporting the school rather than being a liaison person who can help explain the school and community to one another.

3. The school might be tempted to select only those persons who represent no challenge or threat to the system, rather than to choose workers who are truly representative of the population the school serves.

4. Competition, lack of defined roles, unaccepting attitudes, threat of displacement, or unfair conditions of varying sorts may create tremendous tension and conflict between professionals and paraprofessionals.

5. Provision may be lacking for paraprofessionals to advance within the system.

6. The teacher's or counselor's tasks may be redistributed, with no true impact on a redesigning of teaching or counseling programs or practices.

7. Teachers who are given aides may be uncertain about how to use them advantageously and be unable to assume supervisory functions.

8. Paraprofessional positions may be created for the poor without any accompanying attempts to improve or restructure the curricula of the school.

9. The paraprofessional movement may continue in some areas with no effects on the relationship of the movement to significant change efforts such as decentralization and community control, restructuring of services to increase accountability, the Black Movement, the youth movement, and the new organizations of paraprofessionals.

Summary

Several authors, as well as professional organizations, have suggested guidelines for the use of paraprofessionals. Generally, they include such things as a clear statement of goals and objectives, adequate funding and training time, specific role definition, inclusion of all the staff in the recruitment of support personnel, specific outlines for content of the training program, adequate supervision, and ongoing evaluation. Selection procedures should be based on program needs, and the training should include orientation, on the job training, inservice education, supervision and follow up. The supervisor should be the professional with whom the nonprofessional works and should include specific methods of evaluation, determined at the outset of the program.

A variety of problems may occur as a result of the inclusion of support personnel in the professional setting, but many of these may be avoided if sufficient preparation is made by the designers of the program.

CHAPTER FOUR–PARAPROFESSIONAL PROGRAMS IN HUMAN SERVICES

The following programs offer only a small indication of the wide variety of settings in which paraprofessionals are employed and the broad range of functions that they may perform. From California to Washington, D.C., from Maine to Florida, professionals are finding support personnel a valuable adjunct to their services. Included in the program descriptions are those including parents, teachers, students, and senior citizens--all attempting to provide a needed service to make the educational process more meaningful for young people and for the communities of which they are a part.

PROJECT HELP, A PARAPROFESSIONAL PROGRAM IN COUNSELING

Rationale

A federally funded pilot program, Project HELP was designed to bring high school dropouts back into the school system and to reduce further attrition by responding to the needs of the potential dropout. Concern over the increased number of dropouts motivated several teachers at a large suburban high school to develop HELP--Help Education in Lincoln Park (Illinois).

The three-year program sought to alter learning environments to make them more conducive to understanding, satisfaction, and growth. In the belief that dropping out is a response to socio-educational ills, Project HELP formulate the following objectives to change the socio-educational environment. Project HELP will:

1. Select a staff capable of dealing with the needs of potential dropouts and former dropouts.
2. Develop its staff to insure competence and cooperation in an innovative program for assisting students.
3. Attempt to involve the community and the parents of HELP students.
4. Attempt to improve the competencies of teachers not directly involved in HELP.
5. Establish a referral procedure for assigning former and potential dropouts to teachers in the program.

Thirty of the school's 125 teachers formed the core of the program, each volunteer expressing the desire to assume a new role. Thus, in a school setting with population of 3,000 students, the HELP teachers were professionals serving in an added capacity as paraprofessionals. Other school staff included eight counselors and six administrators.

Selection Procedures

Teachers interested in becoming part of the HELP program submitted in writing their philosophies of education and records of their backgrounds and experiences. Final selection of personnel was based on evaluation by the school administrative staff, a university counseling consultant, and the five teachers organizing the program.

Procedures

Three outside consultants were engaged to help teachers develop counseling skills. Teachers participating in the project attended summer workshops and inservice training meetings. The first phase of training was a directed self-exploration focusing on the self as change-agent, the here and now, and the future. Further training emphasized that:

1. Good counseling begins with good listening and entails more suggesting and supporting than directing and ordering.
2. A client's values may differ from one's own.
3. Attempting to impose values is likely to cause students to become closed; deep changes cannot be forced, they must come from within.
4. A problem a teacher experiences with a student may result from the teacher's own communication problem.

Discussion

Data collected over the three-year period of Project HELP's operation led to the following conclusions:

1. The helping teachers developed basic counseling skills. Self-exploration proved to be an effective way to assist teachers to establish meaningful relationships with students.
2. The program had significant positive influence on the number of drop-outs who returned to school.

3. Students involved in the project responded favorably to the individual attention and the feeling that at least one person really cared.
4. The program was an effective way to augment a counseling program.
5. The program demonstrated that teachers with no previous counseling training could be helped to develop the skills necessary to cope with the problems of dropouts. (Source: Perry, 1973)

THE USE OF TEACHER-AIDES IN COLORADO SCHOOLS

Rationale

In an effort to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of teaching and learning, the Colorado State Board of Education encouraged local school boards to employ the services of teacher aides. Each aide was to work under the supervision of a teacher, who would assign classroom responsibilities based on the areas in which help was most needed and on the competencies of the aide. It was hoped that the assistance of aides would enable teachers to spend more time analyzing student needs and improving educational experiences.

Selection

Teacher-aides came from a variety of backgrounds. Aides with elementary school education were used with positive results, and these persons were encouraged to work toward passing the General Educational Development test and to attend junior colleges. Many aides were high school or college graduates. Local school boards formulated policies governing the selection, employment, assignment, and pay of aides. A school with a particularly large number of applicants for teacher-aide positions was able to request that the Colorado Department of Employment do initial screening.

Several criteria were considered important in selection. Applicants should exhibit the belief that every child can learn; they should be flexible and able to react well under stress; they should be able to communicate easily with adults as well as with children. Placement was based on the types of pupils and community to be served. Often an aide worked in a general capacity at first, assisting several teachers, until a specific teacher requested the aide's services.

Procedures

A preservice education program for aides was planned cooperatively by an institution for higher education, the school district, the professional staff of the school, and the aides themselves. The program provided knowledge and understanding of children and of ways in which the aides might work most beneficially with them. Preservice education included role-playing, simulated experiences, films, and presentations in other media. A suggested outline includes human growth and development, the school and society, the educational team, skill training, goals for the school, and professional ethics. It was suggested that teachers participate and that at least 60 hours be devoted to preservice training.

The preservice program was followed by inservice education designed to enable aides to enter service at any level of preparation. Provision was made for those aides who had not completed high school to take the high school equivalency test. The inservice sessions were of two kinds: direct job orientation and college programs leading to professional certification.

The role of the teacher-aide requires continuous evaluation; it changes according to the changes in society, the school, and the individual aide. Outlining a specific job description was thought to be apt to set limitations which were too rigid. Aides were allowed to perform any task not requiring a professional. They might assist in the classroom, in home-school interaction, in counseling, in resource center or library services, in technical services, and in general school services.

Discussion

Evaluation of each teacher-aide program was based on the program objectives. It was believed that any system of evaluation should include all of the personnel working in the program, and the results should be made available to all participants. Evaluation methods included interviews, observations and questionnaires. Relevant information was gathered through an examination of the activities performed by professionals and nonprofessionals and from feedback on the amount of interaction between aides and children and between aides and parents. (Source: Hansford, 1968)

THE ELMONT PROJECT--TEACHER-MOMS FOR TROUBLED CHILDREN

Rationale

The Elmont School District of Nassau County, Long Island initiated the Project for Exceptional Children to provide an organized educational facility for children disturbed enough that they cannot function effectively in normal classrooms. The aim of this program, in operation since the 1959-60 school year, is individualized education within the educational framework rather than in special classes for emotionally and mentally handicapped children. It is based on the belief that all necessary resources for teaching these children exist in the educational system when professional planning is combined with community effort.

"Teacher-moms" are the key element in the program. Working with an educator, a psychologist, and a psychiatrist, each teacher-mom devotes her skills as mother and child-rearer to one disturbed child. The relationship developed between a teacher-mom and the child assigned to her is based on strong emotional rapport, and this relationship becomes the vehicle for learning.

Selection

Teacher-moms represent a wide range of ages and backgrounds; they are a cross-section of mothers in the community. All have reared their own children and volunteer their services. Most of the women are chosen for their extensive experience as mothers.

Procedures

All of a mother's skills are useful to her in her capacity as teacher-mom, but no blueprint is designed for her to follow. Teacher-moms receive little training or indoctrination in their roles. Trial and error, guided by judgment and intuition, contribute to a teacher-mom's effective functioning. The critical factor for the success of the program has proved to be the child/teacher-mom relationship which evolves first on a feeling level, then a trust level, and finally on a teaching and learning level.

During a routine day a teacher-mom greets her child on arrival at school. After leaving the child's coat in the room shared by the two of them, they proceed to a "good morning" room. While a professional teacher conducts group opening exercises with the children, teacher-moms prepare materials for the morning. The teacher-mom teaches in subject areas such as reading, arithmetic, social studies, language skills, and science until mid-morning. After a snack break for all the children and teacher-moms in a large room, teacher-mom and child continue individualized work. All the children return home at noon.

The teacher-mom may decide at times to remove the child from the group environment. Special group experiences in music, arts and crafts, or games are scheduled occasionally. All instruction is mixed with talks, walks, records, and games.

Discussion

By 1968 a total of 31 children had been included in the teacher-mom project. Twenty-one of them had been successfully returned to regular classrooms, and one moved to another district as a part-time student in a regular classroom. A follow-up of these children indicates that they made accelerated emotional and educational progress in community, home, and school settings. Because the project educates troubled children within the existing educational framework it avoids the problems of separation and re-entrance into the community. The project demonstrates how community resources may be mobilized to sustain disturbed children emotionally and educationally at a per-pupil cost only slightly higher than the cost of traditional classroom education. (Source: Donahue and Nichtern, 1965)

THE USE OF COMMUNITY VOLUNTEERS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Rationale

In 1968 Auburn, Maine school officials instituted a program which uses community volunteers as counselors of elementary school children. The program responds to the needs of large numbers of children for stable adult support in their education. The Auburn school system employs two elementary school counselors and a part-time mental health consultant, but funds do not allow for further expansion of the guidance staff. To increase services, the school system turned to the community for help.

Selection

To create interest and support for utilizing lay people as an integral part of public education, the project director and mental health consultant distributed a pamphlet describing the program to local service clubs and church groups. In addition, the mental health consultant offered her services as speaker to interested community groups.

Adults who wished to participate were screened in an interview with the mental health consultant. The most successful volunteers proved to be those evidencing a sincere desire to become part of the program and to be of service to children, and those with a sense of humor, an understanding and acceptance of children, enthusiasm, flexibility, and a well-balanced personality.

The consultant and project director matched each referred child with an adult, after which each volunteer met with the consultant a second time for a briefing on the child. School principals introduced the volunteers to teacher and child and provided time for the teacher and volunteer to consult about the child's needs, reactions to certain tasks, interests, and current level of functioning. The schedule of volunteer-child contacts was determined by the teacher, principal, and consultant.

Training of Volunteers

The project director and mental health consultant conducted ten monthly seminars as inservice training for volunteers. All sessions emphasized discussion and member-to-member interaction; volunteers were encouraged to express ideas and concerns and to react to printed material, films, and brief lectures. The guidelines suggested by Cowen (Cowen, Gardner and Zax, 1967) formed the basis for the seminars. The sequence of seminar topics follows:

Session	Topic	General Objectives
1	The Auburn Project	To provide volunteers with an overview of the program and its objectives
2	Classroom observation	To allow the adults to view the classroom environment and meet with teachers as co-workers
3	Development of the normal personality	To provide instruction in basic concepts of child development
4	Role of the volunteer	To offer the adults guidelines for their work
5	The volunteer and the teacher	To clarify adult and teacher roles in the learning process
6	Observation of experienced volunteer	To demonstrate useful techniques
7	Methods of teaching	To develop teaching skills for academic activities with the children
8	Parent-child relationships	To suggest probable influences of family on child
9	Motivation	To emphasize that children operate at different motivational levels and that love and a feeling of worth are necessary pre-conditions for learning
10	Evaluation--held each May	To review the year's work and offer suggestions for change

Volunteers at Work

In this program the process of providing individual help for a child is viewed as a team effort involving teachers, administrators, project director, and the mental health consultant. In each referral the teacher initiates the procedure by completing a form of basic data on the child--including the reason for referral, background information, strengths and weaknesses, and current level of functioning. The mental health consultant screens referrals and makes recommendations for subsequent activities. If a child seems to need individual help, he or she is matched with a volunteer worker. Child and adult then meet regularly for periods of two to five hours a week during the school day. Some children remain with a volunteer for a few months; others continue for as long as a semester or a full year. In a few rare cases volunteers and children have met regularly for two years.

Volunteer activities with the children include discussion of mutual interests, reading stories aloud, game-playing, review and completion of school assignments, engaging in arts and crafts, and taping stories on recorders. Emphasis, however, is on the relationship aspect of the child-volunteer interaction. The adult is not considered a teacher-aide or tutor even though some activities may be similar to those of a teacher.

Evaluation

Although no formal evaluation was made the first year, teachers and principals reported that the majority of children who met with volunteers showed improvement in grades, attitude toward school, behavior, and general appearance. Teachers noted that the most positive contributions of the adults were in caring for the children, making them feel worthwhile, listening to them, encouraging them, and stimulating them.

Through discussions with teachers and volunteers, a number of problem areas were identified and strategies designed for dealing with them.

1. Despite careful attempts to screen children and match them with adults, some mispairing occurred although a child need not be considered a "problem" to be eligible for assistance, volunteers occasionally questioned referrals because a child "didn't seem to need help." Some adults encountered difficulties with aggressive children; others had trouble relating to slow learners. A few reported that shy or withdrawn children posed problems. Many adults displayed a low tolerance level for ambiguity and reported feelings of frustration when change in a child was not readily apparent. Teachers noted that a few of the volunteers tended unconsciously to project their own difficulties on the children. On the job supervision by a professional staff member was concluded to be an essential component of the program.

2. The most frequent complaint of teachers and volunteers was that time for communication between them was insufficient. Incompatible schedules forced some to maintain communication by telephone or letter. Because feedback sessions between teacher and volunteer concerning an individual child's progress were essential, the Auburn group recommended that part of inservice and parent-conference days be devoted to teacher-volunteer meetings.

3. Although the "possession phenomenon," the tendency of the educator

to consider the child as "mine," did not occur frequently in the Auburn program, it was occasionally a problem. A teacher might resent the intrusion of another adult in his or her classroom and remain skeptical about the philosophy and usefulness of the program. Community opposition might also arise. To insure teacher and community support, all parties must be kept well-informed; teachers must be integral to the referral process. Further, they must realize that most children believe the teacher is responsible for finding them an adult friend.

Discussion

The use of volunteers presupposes that all of the children who want and need individual guidance cannot be helped within the context of existing guidance programs. It is assumed that work with children who are basically normal is not the exclusive domain of the psychologist, social worker or counselor. Direct intervention in the life of a child is believed to be an effective way to promote individual development even when the intervention is not made by a trained professional counselor.

While the Auburn program was originally developed to assist handicapped children, the developmental potential has not been overlooked. A child need not be troubled in order to be part of the program. The normal developmental concerns of a maturing child may be sufficient reason to pair a child with an understanding volunteer. In fact, it is desirable that a number of well-adjusted children be referred in order that the program avoid a problem-centered label.

It might also be beneficial to design a program allowing all children to visit with a volunteer at some time during the school year. A further outcome of the use of volunteers is the possibility of the helper's being helped. The love and acceptance of children seem to contribute to increased adult vitality.

The Auburn plan now operates in many elementary schools. The scope of adult volunteer programs, however, need not be limited to work with pre-adolescent children. Heavy case loads and a shortage of trained counselors plague secondary schools as well. Activities and approaches would need modification to meet adolescent needs, but imaginative counselors should encounter little difficulty in developing appropriate experiences for older children. (Source: Muro, 1970)

STUDENT VOLUNTEERS AS FRESHMAN COUNSELORS

Rationale

In 1970 the University of Florida developed the Student Volunteer Program to respond to the need for more active student participation in the academic community and for a curriculum more relevant to student life. The program assumes that students can effectively teach their peers and that today's students are motivated by the ideal of altruistic service to others.

The Student Volunteers in this program are college sophomores who devote time and effort to helping incoming freshmen adjust to the University. The recruitment goal of 200 was chosen to provide a minimum ratio of one Student Volunteer to twenty freshmen. The volunteer assists with orientation, serves as a resource person and friend during the year, and acts as a referral agent for various other resources on campus and as a consultant to the residence hall staff.

Selection

Counselors in nine residence areas interview potential volunteers during the spring quarter. They seek students committed to the program. Volunteers must be willing to enroll in an academic course for volunteers and be able to spend the time necessary to fulfill the functions of the job. Ideal Student Volunteers are those who relate easily to people and are likely to be trusted as friends by the freshmen.

Description

During the fall of the year the volunteers enroll in a three-credit pass-fail course entitled, "Student Development in a University Setting." A team-taught one hour a week lecture combines the efforts of a counselor educator, a personnel administrator, the director of residence halls, and a variety of other resource people from within the University. Lecture topics include:

Volunteer Characteristics--Who Are We?
The Helping Relationship
Drugs on Campus
Freshman Characteristics
The Black Student at the University
The Role of the Student at the University
Human Sexuality
Insights--Synthesizing the Helping Experience

The second hour each week is spent in small discussion groups headed by residence hall counselors. The groups provide an opportunity for the volunteers to discuss and evaluate material presented in lectures. Role playing and other communication techniques are often used in the group sessions. Groups also visit various campus services.

During the third hour of the course, the volunteer works with a group of freshman students. Each volunteer develops a plan for activities with his section instructor and then carries it out with the students. Often plans are developed within the student group itself, such as going out to dinner together or meeting in study sessions prior to exams. The volunteer generally lives on the same floor in the dormitory as the members of his or her group, and thus many informal group activities are possible. Volunteers are encouraged to maintain a friendly informal atmosphere with the students.

Bi-weekly conferences with the section instructor emphasize the volunteer's skill development. A major purpose of the course is for the Student Volunteers to understand and use course material in helping freshmen, and the volunteer is encouraged to consult with the instructor about any special problems.

Discussion

After operating for a year the program was evaluated by Student Volunteers and section instructors. The evaluation brought about several revisions in the program for the next year.

Current Student Volunteers would aid residence hall counselors in interviewing and selecting prospective volunteers. The course would change from large lectures to smaller groups and more informal presentations. Section instructors would be responsible for presenting material. The course lecturers would become resource people and coordinators of the total program. Experience showed that time is limited when volunteers are enrolled in the course at the same time they are involved in activities with freshmen. Therefore, the course would be offered during the spring semester. (Source: Jeffers)

PEER COUNSELING OFFICES AT THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

Rationale

Perceiving the need for an information center for other students at the University of Michigan, three undergraduates established a Student Advising Office in the College of Literature, Science and the Arts in the spring of 1969. After witnessing the success of this endeavor, students in the University's School of Education set up a similar office.

Previous to the establishment of these offices, students commonly sought help from one another regarding school-related decisions. Although faculty members at the University were assigned responsibilities for academic advisement, frequently they were new to the University and lacking in knowledge. As a result, students were often left to their own resources and were often uncertain or confused about procedures and programs. The student offices were established by students for students as a way of changing this situation.

Selection

Peer counselors work on a volunteer basis, and there are no requirements for counselors other than their own interest and desire to counsel. The program coordinators are paid workers who usually work about 20 hours per week. They are selected through informal polling of the counselors. Final decisions on new coordinators are made by old coordinators.

Description

Faculty and administrative counselors lent their support to the Student Advising Offices, and now the offices receive minimal funding for the salaries of the coordinators and for basic supplies. The offices are indirectly responsible to a dean or executive committee. A feeling of mutual support exists between the Student Advising offices and the traditional counseling services.

Student offices are informal and operate on a walk-in basis, without scheduled appointments. A counselor is available at all times during office hours, and counseling is done both individually and in small groups.

Coordinator responsibilities include scheduling student counselors, keeping files of university materials, counseling, and coordinating activities. The coordinators also schedule orientation meetings in which resource people are brought in to share special information and knowledge.

Most counselors begin by counseling for two hours a week, increasing gradually to ten or twelve hours weekly. Although student counselors receive no formal training, resources are available to them. Their offices are equipped with University counseling manuals, the book of standard operating procedures for the University, course outlines, and course evaluations. Counselors gain skill and knowledge by observing and talking with other counselors and by actual counseling. The offices do whatever they can to respond to the needs of the students who seek their help. Often students go to the offices just to talk. If a student wants information about which a counselor is uncertain, the counselor makes every effort to find it. If counselors or other members of the staff feel unable to handle particular problems, they may refer students to other services on campus or in the community.

Discussion

In 1970 student counselors helped an estimated 75 to 100 students per week. The counselors feel that their reception and success is a result of their enthusiasm; they believe strongly in what they are doing and in how they are doing it. One coordinator evaluated the program in the following way:

> To put it very bluntly--I don't think you can get the honesty anywhere else in the University that you can get in our office. Many students are discouraged because they know what they want, but aren't able to get it--they don't know how to get around the red tape. We try, in a positive way, to help break down the notion that you can only approach the University in one way. I guess you could say we help them to learn how to manipulate their environment.

The success of the two pioneering Student Advising Offices has inspired the establishment of other peer counseling and advising centers on campus. Some of these now function in the School of Engineering, the School of Natural Resources, and in several dormitories on campus. (Source: CAPS Capsule, 1970)

THE USE OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS TO ENRICH AN ELEMENTARY GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING PROGRAM

Rationale:

One of the goals of an elementary guidance program is to help children learn to relate more appropriately to their peers and to adults. In order to accomplish this, the child must come to believe in his or her own personal worth and have confidence that he or she is an adequate person. The proponents of this program believe that more individualized, personal attention for youngsters experiencing difficulty in human relationships will enhance their self concepts and thereby effect positive change in their dealings with others.

A number of elementary school children appeared to experience this difficulty. To bring the benefit of counseling services to the greatest possible number of children, a program was designed to use high school students in one-to-one relationships with them.

The idea had potential value for the older students as well. The high school students would have the opportunity to discover how their services could help meet a small child's needs for attention, encouragement, personal acceptance, and recognition.

Selection Procedures

Twenty-five elementary school children (14 boys, 11 girls) were selected by the fourth, fifth, and sixth grade teachers. Some of the children had had previous contact with a social worker but no longer needed case work service. None of the children was receiving psychiatric treatment. They were marginal performers who needed a friend, a push, motivation--or just someone they could trust. Some of the children were known to have minimal communication at home or school; some were unduly shy with peer groups. Others were noticeably ambivalent about school, often reflecting home attitudes. Still others had problems with personal grooming. There was marked variation in talents and kinds of problems presented, but all the children needed the concentrated attention of an older person with whom they could communicate. Parents of all participating elementary and high school students were informed of the program and gave permission for their children to take part.

The selection of high school students was conducted by the Student Council sponsor. Each student volunteer had indicated an interest in working in the field of teaching, social work, or mental health; and each was considered sufficiently mature to fulfill a responsible role in the program. Among the group selected were the class President and Vice-president, President of the Student Council, and leaders in wrestling, swimming, and baseball. In general the volunteers came from more advantaged homes than the elementary school children.

The elementary and high school students were matched by the Student Council advisor in cooperation with the elementary school staff. Comments from the cumulative records and teacher recommendations as well as brief personality sketches were shared. The pairs were of like sex and as homogeneous in background as possible.

Program Procedures

No special pre-program training activities for the high school counselor-aides were designed. However, they received specialized guidance throughout the period during which they were meeting with counselees. Before meeting the elementary students, the high school participants were briefed on the scope of the project, various behavior patterns they might expect, and the rationale for selection of children for the program. They shared their feelings of anticipation and concern, and the sponsors and advisors helped structure goals for each elementary school child, stressing that goals would change as relationships developed.

The elementary children were introduced to the plan as a group. Each child understood that he or she was participating in a program designed to help young children become happier in school and more interested in their work.

High school and elementary school students then met at the elementary school along with the elementary teachers, a guidance worker, and a social worker. At this meeting the paired students set up a time and place for their subsequent meetings, and the high school students questioned the classroom teachers about their young charges. The elementary children were excused from class 45 minutes a week to meet with their high school friends. They ordinarily met in pairs and occasionally in groups of four or six. The weekly sessions were used for academic assistance, athletic play, or just talking.

All-group programs included an Easter-egg hunt and picnic during spring vacation; a visit to the high school with lunch in the cafeteria, a visit to a class and a Student Council meeting, and a tour of the building; a volley-ball game; and a final party. These all-group functions added greatly to the understanding that the older students had of the younger ones, and they were judged to be helpful to withdrawn children, who learned to participate more freely as their confidence increased in their high school friends.

Group discussions involving the older students were held bi-monthly at the high school, with content covering such topics as how do deprived children express themselves, how do we perceive change, what is the meaning of hostility or excessive demands? Toward the end of the year the problem of separation was considered at some length. The meetings provided a forum for student volunteers to share their feelings of achievement, frustration and uncertainty and an opportunity to consult with the guidance worker.

Evaluation and Followup

On the subjective level, it was easy to perceive the growing warmth, companionship, and enthusiasm that characterized the sessions between the older and younger students. An increased amount of affection was displayed and marked enthusiasm was shown by some of the children who had been quite shy previously. School behavior improved noticeably for some, and many began to take more pride in personal appearance and hygiene.

For more objective evaluations, teachers and parents of the elementary students who participated in the program were asked to complete rating scales. The high school students were asked to evaluate the program by submitting an essay about their reactions. The elementary students met as a group to discuss their reactions.

Parent Evaluation

The parent evaluation scale asked for responses to such items as:

1. Evaluate pupil's behavior at home since entering the program.
2. Has pupil's attitude toward brothers and sisters improved?
3. Has there been any change in your child's attitude toward school?

On both parent and teacher evaluation sheets the rating categories read: Greatly Improved, Somewhat Improved, Same, Worse. It was noted that 77% of the total responses were Somewhat Improved or Greatly Improved.

Significantly more Improved responses for girls than for boys were noted in home behavior and attitude toward siblings, with a similar trend in attitude toward school. All parents indicated that they wanted their children included in the program again.

Teacher Evaluation

Teachers were asked to respond to the following items:

1. Evaluate pupil's behavior since entering the program.
2. Has pupil's attitude toward peers improved?
3. Evaluate pupil's attitude toward school.
4. Evaluate pupil's attitude toward teacher.

Has there been any noticeable improvement in pupil's study habits?

Teachers observed fewer areas of improvement, proportionately, than parents. Only 43% of teacher responses were in the Somewhat Improved or Greatly Improved categories. Teachers perceived greatest improvement in the children's attitude toward the peer group.

High School Student Evaluation

The high school students agreed unanimously that the program was worth while. "It was so rewarding to me to see Karen open up," and, "Bob learned to get along in a group without needing to have things his way," were among typical comments. The students made suggestions for improving the program next year. "Give more complete information about the elementary students before initial meeting." "Make better arrangements for space in the building." "Have more total-group activities." The students also commented on the personal rewards of the project. "Knowing someone is depending on you gives you a feeling of responsibility and discipline." "Glad to be able to help somebody--not just talk of ideals." "Valuable because it helped me to use patience and to slow down and try to help someone." All of the high school students hoped the program would be continued.

Elementary School Student Evaluation

Without exception, all of the elementary school children felt that the program had been helpful. Reasons varied from delight in getting out of class to,"It was wonderful to have someone to talk to... someone to help me with my work... someone to give me some advice." Some of the children felt that spending more time on academic matters would be useful. Others wished that the high school students would come more than once a week. Boys and girls appeared to be equally articulate and enthusiastic.

Discussion and Recommendations

Girl-boy differences in project results may be attributed to several factors. The most apparent was the girls' tendency to verbalize more freely and to show outward affection and excitement in contrast to the more reserved manner of the boys. Also the girls' problems may perhaps have been of a less serious nature at the outset, though the initial referrals to the program did not support such a bias.

It should be stressed that the statistical results highlight only the most clear-cut findings. For some children only certain areas were in need of improvement, so a rating of Same did not necessarily denote inadequate adjustment or that the relationship with the high school student was not helpful. The

Worse notation for one girl was explained by her teacher as noting a very positive change; the child progressed from being severely withdrawn and overly complaining to being silly and social and casual about her work.

The fact that the teachers noted the greatest growth in the Relation to Peer Group category appears to tie in directly with the basic purpose of the program. It supports the working hypothesis that a child's peer relationships will improve as the result of a trustworthy, meaningful relationship with another person.

The subjective evaluations indicated that improved self-concept may be manifested in many ways and is more easily perceived in some children that in others. The older students readily acknowledged that they benefited from the training and guidance they received as they learned to become significant to an emotionally deprived child. At no time did the elementary children appear jealous of another's companion, nor were there systematic complaints or disappointments.

All but two of the teachers involved endorsed the project and thought it should be continued. Various factors qualified teacher enthusiasm. Some teachers resisted the change in established programs--perhaps because of new demands on them, perhaps because of feeling displaced by the high school students, perhaps because they felt that the students should have sought more specific direction from them. To minimize faculty resistance the potential of encountering problems such as these should be discussed and understood during faculty orientation at the beginning of the program.

Faculty should be helped to appreciate the intangible and covert goals as well as those more readily observable. More explicit goals--including parental goals--for each elementary student could be established. These goals might include solving problems related to dependency, attention-getting, withdrawing from other children, dominating others, destruction of others' property, provoking others, overacting, inadequate personal hygiene, lack of affection, or disrespect. Evaluation of these goals could be handled in checklist fashion at the conclusion of the project.

In planning for fuller appraisal of the project in forthcoming years, other objective criteria might be considered. These could include absentee rate before and after the relationship with the high school friend was established, changes in academic grades, comparison of ratings on evaluation scale items with a control group of students matched for problem areas, and before-and-after projective tests such as sentence completion.

The observed movement toward greater self-acceptance shown by these elementary school children as a result of the effort, understanding, and loving companionship of high school students appeared to support a program using older students as adjuncts to an elementary school guidance and counseling program. In these days of overcrowded schools and increased case-loads it appears to be worthwhile to use counselor time to develop the resources of non-professional aides such as mature, responsible high school students.

(Source: Winters and Arent, 1969)

USING TEENAGERS TO SUPPLEMENT CASEWORK

Rationale

Designed along the lines of the Big Brother programs found in many U. S. communities, the Champaign, Illinois program used teenagers to act as "Pals" for youngsters. A teenage youth council and a school social work department co-sponsored the experimental project which is supported by an NIMH grant to the Champaign Human Relations Commission. Program goals and structure were developed in accordance with the fundamentals of professional social work practice to supplement available services. The Pal program attempts to supply services other than casework to children who might benefit from a relationship with an older person.

Because the teenager is closer to the child in age and more likely to participate in the same activities, the child is less likely to associate the teenager with the adult world and is more likely to identify with him or her. The teenagers operate with minimal autonomy, and clients are selected on the basis of low vulnerability to possible damage from a relationship with a nonprofessional.

One basic assumption of this program is that the teenagers would benefit from it as much as the clients. It was hoped that fulfilling the needs of children who depend on them would improve the teenagers' sense of personal identity. The experience would contribute to the teenagers' maturity through the focus on giving to and thinking of others. In addition the experience would introduce the volunteers to the field of social work.

Selection

The teenage participants were chosen through formal applications which asked for personal information and references. Interviews were held, and eight participants were chosen. The teenagers were required to be over 16 years old to minimize problems of identification and confusion between clients and paraprofessionals.

Children taking part in the program were recommended either by a social worker or by a committee of a teacher, principal, psychologist, and social worker. The children chosen were felt to be in need of an adult with whom they could identify and a human relationship outside the family. They were selected primarily on the basis of a positive response to the offerings of the Pal program. The age range was limited to between six and ten. Children with behavior problems such as aggressive behavior or "acting out" were not included because the teenagers were not prepared to deal with such problems. Eight children participated.

Procedures

The Pals met with their youngsters for half a day each week. Each Pal was responsible for preparing several activity suggestions for each session and was encouraged to involve the youngster in the planning. Activities ranged from ice-skating to museum visits to window shopping; most activities were free or inexpensive.

Volunteers were closely supervised. Each Pal was assigned a supervisor with whom he or she was expected to consult frequently, and all Pals attended monthly training sessions. The first training session provided an orientation to the professional nature of the program. The meeting focused on behavior characteristics of children in relation to age and socioeconomic situation and the teenagers' feelings regarding the child client, parents, and themselves. The Pals talked about anxiety which the children might be feeling and about their own apprehensions. Subsequent training sessions also gave Pals a chance to discuss questions, problems, and reactions.

Each Pal was assigned for one year only, to avoid strong emotional relationships. All interagency discussion was handled by the caseworker and the group supervisor. The supervisor worked with the teenagers while the caseworker worked with the client. Caseworkers did not have direct contact with Pals; however, caseworkers wrote monthly reports for their clients' Pals with evaluations and suggestions.

Discussion

During the final group meeting the teenagers evaluated the program and agreed that they had benefited from the program as much as the children. They felt that the experience exposed them to different socioeconomic situations and problems. The program supervisors believed that the experience developed the volunteers' emotional maturity, ability to establish meaningful relationships, and capacity to give. Supervisors and program designers emphasized the necessity that similar programs be carefully designed.

(Source: Perlmutter and Durham, 1969)

TRAINING PARENTS AS DRUG COUNSELORS IN THE COMMUNITY

Rationale

The parents in a community felt that traditional educational lectures on drugs and public panel discussions by doctors, lawyers, and former junkies had not been successful in helping community members to solve personal dilemmas. So parent-volunteers designed a program to utilize community personnel to help other parents whose children were having drug-related problems.

Volunteers were trained to become "community developers," a term describing a person capable of providing a unique service to the community--a person with a full sense of personal competence who acts as a competent individual rather than as the servant of a professional. Parents became community developers in the program, but student peer counselors and community hot-line workers could serve as community developers in other situations. The goals of the parent training program were to educate parents about drugs, to train them in counseling and human relations skills, and to support them with follow-up services as they attempted to implement the program in the community.

Procedures

Volunteers participated in 60 hours of training. The first phase was a 20-hour weekend encounter group structured to get people to know each other better, promote individual openness and sharing, identify problem areas often encountered in counseling, and develop observational techniques. The weekend encounter identified the desire for personal growth experiences and the desire to serve the community as two factors motivating the parents.

The second phase of training focused on providing parents with drug information and teaching them counseling skills. A university-associated drug program presented lectures and facilitated discussions on drug information. In microcounseling--a technique which emphasizes interviewing skills--parents concentrated on attending behavior, reading non-verbal clues, reflection of feeling, paraphrasing, and summarizing. Participants practiced these skills individually and in small groups, each person having an opportunity to act as client, counselor, and supervisor. The volunteers showed improvement in their ability to counsel. Audio and video equipment were incorporated in this phase of training, as were structured experiential exercises similar to those in the encounter phase. The feeling of group cohesiveness evolving from these first phases of training helped the group in its early period of work in the community.

The final phase of training emphasized community development and change techniques. Volunteers were urged to assume supportive or consulting roles when they began community work and to avoid fostering dependent relationships. Guidelines were established concerning plans or problems relating to the responsibilities of the community developers group, avoiding feeling directly responsible for the task or outcomes of counseling, and functioning in the context of what was taking place in the field.

After training, the group made it known that their services were available to parents in need of such support. As they became involved, participants in the program became more adept at organizing community activities and determining community needs. In the course of initial interactions with 100 clients, the community developers broadened their services to include marital-related counseling, parent-child conflict resolution, and a "Parent-to-Parent Call Line." Additional factual material and ongoing training helped volunteers become more effective in these newly developed areas.

Discussion

This program demonstrates the services which concerned parents can provide to help other families in the community. A follow-up study conducted by independent raters seven months after training showed that the community developers had maintained their skills in counseling and that they were having a significant impact on their clients. The parents acted as counselors who help to mold and make things happen rather than as conveyors of information or collectors of data. Volunteers not only acquired new skills in counseling and interpersonal interaction but also learned new concepts of organizational development and change. Through helping others to clarify and seek new alternatives for gaining control over certain aspects of their lives, they ameliorated conditions in their community. These paraprofessionals became community developers in action. (Source: Gluckstern, 1973)

AN UNDERGRADUATE COUNSELOR TRAINING PROGRAM

Rationale

Selected institutions of higher education participate in the Texas Plan, an integrated undergraduate approach to the preparation of support personnel in guidance and counseling. An outgrowth of a Texas Personnel and Guidance Association task force, the plan builds on a competency-based guidance and counseling "career ladder." The career ladder presents three levels of systematic programming for guidance personnel--paraprofessional, pre-professional, and professional.

The Paraprofessional Level

People working at the paraprofessional level begin on the career ladder as "intern guidance assistants." Interns have certain competencies from their high school or community college or adult education experiences. They are eager to learn and able to relate to young people. After an interview they receive a try-out position in a school guidance office as a clerk, receptionist, librarian or general office worker. They serve as intern guidance assistants for a period of one or two years, with or without salary.

Following internship and a thorough evaluation by the guidance staff, interns may become "contract guidance assistants." Contract guidance assistants may be expected to complete additional college work, adult education courses, or on the job training experiences. Renewal of contract is based on competency and personality attributes. Contract assistants need not seek the next level on the ladder but have that option. High school students may become helpers for interns or contract assistants, thus expanding training and recruitment possibilities.

The Pre-Professional Level

To become an intern guidance associate, the first-rung worker at the pre-professional level, one must complete an associate degree from a community college or a minimum of two years work at a college or university. While serving an internship a worker at this level enrolls in a junior-senior level training program for guidance personnel. The professional counseling staff supervise interns in school guidance offices.

On completion of the Bachelor's program in Guidance Studies and on recommendation by the professional counseling staff, a guidance associate receives a contract. Part of the contract associates' job is to share the supervision of guidance assistants. Pre-professionals receive direct professional level supervision.

The Professional Level

On this level personnel must have a Master's degree in the area of guidance and counseling and the endorsement of the institution providing the training experiences. They must also be approved by the public school counseling staff who supervise the required in-school internship experience. The terms "counselor" and "professional" are reserved for workers at this level; professionals have been fully trained and are expected to have developed special skills in certain areas. Counselors supervise guidance associates and provide direction for assistants.

With a specialist degree in counseling, one may serve as a Head Counselor, Team Leader, Director of Guidance, or Division Chairman.

The final rung on the career ladder requires a doctoral degree in counseling. Personnel at this level may become leaders in the profession due to their training, personal qualifications, and experience.

Discussion

The Texas Plan changes counselor certification from a teacher-centered preparation base to a behavioral science foundation in counselor education. Clearly defined goals and objectives strengthen the program. Competency-based evaluations of candidates' performance and knowledge lead to certification.

Stated in advance, the performance competencies are based on explicit concepts of guidance roles related to the career ladder. Time modules for candidates' developing desired competencies are systematically structured. People from other disciplines are provided ways to enter the program and develop and demonstrate competencies.

SHORT MODELS OF SUPPORT PERSONNEL PROGRAMS IN GUIDANCE

The Guidance Assistant Project in Deerfield, Illinois

This program involved the hiring of guidance assistants to work in elementary schools in Deerfield. The applicants were required to have undergraduate degrees and were screened by a committee of the school psychologist the project director, the mental health clinic administrator, the guidance director, and the school principal. Those chosen participated in an orientation program before school began. They received graduate course credit for in-service training conducted during the school year by the school psychologist and the school social worker.

The assistants' responsibilities included helping in the testing program, observing and gathering data, serving as resource people, and working directly with children--screening for kindergarten and first grade, conducting classroom group guidance, and making referrals. Evaluation of the program indicated success in many areas. (Deerfield Public Schools, 1968)

Baker's Dozen Community Mental Health Center for Adolescents at Howard University, Washington, D.C.

As part of a program for training nonprofessionals for careers in the human services, eight youths, aged 17 through 21, were trained as mental health workers for neighborhood children. The three-month training program stressed development of personal motivation, clarification of values and identity, acquisition of basic social and interpersonal skills, and knowledge about working with groups and individuals.

The aides served as leaders of groups which provided activities aimed at ego-strengthening and therapeutic gains. They also participated in program planning, behavior observation, interviews with group members, and individual and group supervision. (Mitchell in Grosser, et al., 1969)

Volunteer Activities in Winnetka, Illinois Schools

In this program senior citizens are recruited through publicity and contact with community organizations to do volunteer work in the schools. After interviews to determine their interests, experiences, and availability the senior citizens become part of a talent pool from which school coordinators can draw. In the schools they serve as curriculum resource consultants, special lecturers, teacher aides, and tutors in programs for special children.

The volunteers are supervised and evaluated by the program coordinator, who also maintains communication between school personnel and volunteers. The program has received funding and has been initiated in six other communities. (Freund, 1968)

Training Program for Support Personnel in Resource Centers and Guidance Offices

As a result of a grant from the U.S. Office of Education through the Massachusetts Department of Education, a three week full-time summer program was held to train support personnel. The 1969 program at Amherst Pelham Junior High School trained 18 women to work as support personnel in school learning resource centers and guidance offices. The training program focused on developing skills in human relations, clerical skills, and skills specific to guidance offices or resource centers. The program was concerned with Level I training as described in Chapter One for the first three-week session, followed by skill-building sessions at Levels II and III the subsequent summer (Zimpfer, 1971). People were recruited through the distribution of brochures and news releases. Participation in the program was open to any person with an aide position waiting in the fall, regardless of previous education. However, people who had already been employed and who had jobs waiting in the same school were not eligible.

An interim study (Leland, *et al,* 1969) reported the outcomes of the program. The trainees were found to be functioning satisfactorily in their schools. They were supervised by staff members through visits during the year and through Saturday sessions. A strong follow-up plan involving meetings and supervision with an outside consultant was considered to be an important aspect of the success of the program.

CHAPTER FIVE–PRESENT IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE TRENDS

EFFECTS OF THE PARAPROFESSIONAL MOVEMENT

While the paraprofessional has functioned for many years in fields of medicine, law, engineering and education, the movement to incorporate such services into school guidance programs is relatively new and is the cause of considerable controversy. Created as a result of several factors, including a shortage of professional workers and recognition of the need for more personalized counseling services for diverse groups of students, the paraprofessional role is still in the process of being defined. Support has come from professional organizations, state legislatures, state-level agencies and the Federal government, but guidelines are broad and nonspecific, leaving much room for interpretation by employing institutions.

Several studies attest to the effectiveness of paraprofessionals in mental health services, and definite improvements in pupil learning have been documented in classrooms with teacher aides. Little formal evaluation of paraprofessionals in the counseling field has been conducted, however, and what evidence exists is in the form of either descriptive, subjective impressions or checklists of reactions and observations. Even more rare is research that attempts to explore the reactions of students to support personnel in counseling.

A review of the literature will suggest some generalizations that may be made about the use of paraprofessionals in educational settings, some of which are listed below:

1. Many guidance and instructional activities may be successfully undertaken by support personnel.

2. Support personnel in schools have up till now primarily been used as teacher aides. Interest is growing as to other possibilities for such workers in a variety of areas heretofore limited to professionals.

3. Paraprofessionals may be employed by school districts either on a voluntary basis or as paid workers.

4. Inservice training for all school personnel is imperative when aides are introduced into a school.

5. Developing positions for nonprofessionals is often a way of creating entry-level jobs for members of the community.

The foregoing statements speak broadly to the use of the services of paraprofessionals and provide a background from which to view the specific effects of paraprofessional programs on the individuals, the communities, and the institutions of which they are a part.

Effects on the Paraprofessional

What happens to these nonprofessionals as they embark on their new careers in professional settings? What are the effects on the persons themselves as they perform new roles and interact closely with professionals who may have had totally different life experiences? The following report from a Richmond, California paraprofessional program speaks rather explicitly to this question:

> The program resulted in increased knowledge about the community and citizen participation, development of personal skills and potential changes in social and political outlook, and transformation of personal identity.
>
> The consequence of finding a line of work in which one is competent and that gets rewarded socially is a clearer concept of who one is, of what is one's place in the world. The work of providing social services and the emerging role of community spokesman had these identity effects for many of the Richmond workers who did not previously have an occupational and community role or clearcut notion of their social function... Previous moods of apathy and discouragement were replaced by productive activism and high morale.... (Gartner, 1971)

Thus, the employment of the paraprofessional not only offers a response to genuine societal need but contributes to feelings of fulfillment on the part of the aide as well.

The Minneapolis New Careers Program attempted to examine the effects of their employment in professional settings on the self concept of paraprofessionals. The study revealed that significant positive changes occurred in the self concepts of paraprofessionals as a result of their work and association with professionals. In addition, the indigenous workers reported that they felt more comfortable with professionals and more familiar with professional practices. At the same time these changes were occurring, however, the workers expressed increasing doubts about the expertise of the professionals and the efficacy of their functions (New Careers Research, 1969).

Reports from several programs indicate that paraprofessionals experience changes in their standard of living in a positive sense and evince new aspirations for continuing education and training, some even terminating employment to return to school and thereby increase their opportunity for career advancement.

Effects on the Professional

The paraprofessional may have a variety of significant effects on the professional with whom he or she works. For example, the nonprofessional may be responsible for introducing the professional to a broader repertoire of counseling techniques of a preventive or remedial nature. Because the paraprofessional is often more familiar with the life style and needs of various kinds of students, he or she may be able to illustrate for the professional more adequate ways of responding to those students.

Teacher or counselor aides may enable the professionals to be more effective in their roles by freeing them to perform tasks for which they are specially trained. The professional may thus be able to expand his role to that of consultant, organizer or supervisor and to become involved with evaluative techniques. The appropriate use of nonprofessionals will depend on the identification of competencies needed and the development of criteria for evaluating these skills. Professionals may be forced to develop competency-based programs in order to respond to this requirement.

An increase in the accountability of professional services may also occur. The paraprofessional can play a significant role as an agent for change, uniting his or her efforts with students and professionals to effect beneficial changes within institutions and programs. This can have the effect of making programs more relevant to need, revitalizing existing programs in line with emerging or changing objectives, and thus cause the professionals themselves to be more accountable in the services they provide.

Another possible effect on the professional has been referred to earlier in this report but is mentioned again because of its importance. Inclusion of paraprofessionals in counseling fields has the potential for creating feelings of insecurity and threat on the part of the professional which may lead to friction between the two groups of workers. The counseling profession is new enough that it is still establishing itself in the field of human services. This fact, coupled with budgets cuts resulting in a decrease of available jobs for professional persons, is apt to create resentment and fear that a dilution of standards may occur. Professionals are only now beginning to provide definitive answers to the old question, "What do counselors do?" and may as a result be forced to examine their roles and describe them in concrete terms that are understandable and acceptable to a questioning public.

Lack of clear definition of roles of professionals and paraprofessionals can result in conflict. One effective way to achieve role definition is through a systems approach, which entails determining the overall purpose of the agency; defining the purpose in terms of specific objectives; and then identifying the various methods, personnel, and facilities needed to meet these objectives. The activities of an agency might be subdivided into task functions, such as support, interaction facilitation, and communication facilitation; and maintenance functions, which involve recruitment and training of personnel and the other administrative activities. Roles within both areas can be specifically defined and assigned to either professionals or paraprofessionals, thus clarifying responsibilities and alleviating confusion and overlap. Grosser (1969) comments on this need for role definition and possible change in patterns of performance when he says:

> The introduction of a program device as innovative as this one, even if the original intention is only to improve services, must soon produce strains leading to alterations in patterns of agency function.

Effects on Students

As mentioned earlier, some research evidence exists as to improvement of pupil learning in classrooms with teacher aides, but assessment of student response to paraprofessional counselors remains subjective or tentative. Indigenous nonprofessional guidance workers are likely to be particularly effective in reaching certain members of the school population because they are able to identify more closely with the backgrounds from which these students come and are more familiar with and aware of their unique needs. The paraprofessional can serve as a middleman or agent between the professional and the student, providing a bridge for greater understanding, thereby promoting better communication between professionals and students.

The addition of nonprofessional personnel certainly expands the educational staff and has the effect of providing more individualized, personal attention, less structure in the classroom, and more opportunities for innovative educational experiences for students both in guidance and instruction.

Effects on the School and the Administration

The potential benefits to the school and the administration of employing paraprofessionals are significant and far-reaching. Involving indigenous personnel in educational institutions has the potential for improving school-community relations, making the school more aware of community mores and cultures, improving the relevance of the educational curricula to the needs of the school population, and providing a linkage between the school and community. Nonprofessionals also can help provide solutions to manpower shortages and to the development of a differentiated staffing pattern in the school.

The use of nonprofessionals in educational programs is likely to set a climate for change and can be an effective catalyst for evaluating roles and functions of all school personnel, as well as for examining and restructuring curriculum offerings and teaching or counseling practices. Such programs can lead to a coalition of skills and practices whereby a greater level of equality is achieved and organizations become more humane and democratic.

The school must be prepared to deal with numerous factors that relate to the use of nonprofessional workers. These include job advancement opportunities, staff relationships, training, supervision, budgetary considerations, and the like. Clear delineation of responsibility is a first priority for those who administer the paraprofessional program.

Effects on the Community

The expansion of professional areas to include the services of nonprofessionals increases the opportunities of jobs for the poor, offers the chance for integrating the poor into the mainstream of the community, and contributes to their upward mobility. Not only does this involvement contribute to a general raising of the community standard of living, however, it is also a powerful way to increase community participation and to promote effective communication with community members, serving to bridge the cultural gap between community and school.

Such involvement has the potential for achieving improved school-community relations, helping the community to be more aware of problems and needs of the school, satisfying community desires for specific educational programs, and generally providing a liaison between community and school.

Increasingly, members of the community are insisting on participation in the development and implementation of educational policies and programs. No longer are they content to sit back and leave education to the professionals--instead, they are demanding to be included in decision-making areas and even in the instructional process. Educational institutions are responding by publicly advertising board meeting agendas, allowing time for input from community representatives, and including lay persons on important educational policy-making committees. The placement of paraprofessionals in educational settings, however, may be the key to answering these demands.

Riessman and Gartner (1969) see the paraprofessional movement, particularly the new careers aspect, as part of the thrust for community control that is occurring throughout society--control not only through participation and involvement as members of school boards or employees of a system but also as persons who have impact on decision-making that provides the potential for enabling them to be in control of themselves and their destinies.

The use of the services of indigenous workers brings the voice of the community inside the institution and allows nonprofessionals to observe the educational process first-hand and to formulate and present new ideas, suggestions, or demands for change. Zimpfer (1971) found that the new teacher aides are following steps in career patterns that will lead to their becoming full-fledged teachers in time, seeing themselves not as part-time volunteers on the fringe of what is happening in education but rather as in training for meaningful employment and as an integral and important part of the educational process.

Effects on Professional Organizations and at the State Level

Professional organizations have responded to the paraprofessional movement in various ways. In 1968, a report of the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) and the Council of Social Work Education (CSWE) endorsed the new careers concept as a new and important manpower resource. The joint report also recognized the importance of the utilization in such programs of personnel indigenous to the client population (NINC, 1970). From this same report came several recommendations for consideration by those organizations employing nonprofessionals: development of job tasks stemming from clients' needs, opportunity for vertical and horizontal mobility, education for career advancement, development of a team concept of services, and training to enable professionals to work better with paraprofessionals.

The National Education Association (NEA) has adopted a policy statement which encourages the development of support personnel as "one of the most challenging and hopeful advances in modern education," but limits paraprofessional participation in the organization. The American Federation of Teachers (AFT), however, not only supports the movement but has been actively recruiting paraprofessionals as full members of the locals. AFT organizers at the national level have even assisted groups of paraprofessionals to form their own locals. Both organizations are attempting to recruit aides who feel that teachers and aides must support one another, the goal being an increase in solidarity for purposes of negotiation.

A great many problems may arise in the organization and unionization of support personnel according to Gartner and Riessman (1968); however, this unionization would seem to be vital to the building of group solidarity among paraprofessionals. Such solidarity would lend strength and cohesiveness to the paraprofessional movement and assist paraprofessionals in negotiating for specific working conditions such as salary scales and increments; length of workday, week or year; tenure regulations; preservice and inservice training requirements; and prescribed opportunities for advancement on the career ladder.

Few states provide for the licensing of paraprofessionals in education (Bobbitt, 1969). Therefore, it becomes the responsibility of the local school district and the supervisory staff to decide upon qualifications and skills needed for satisfactory job performance and to define the tasks to be performed by paraprofessionals. Some states have attempted to clarify the legal status of paraprofessionals and to place certain limits on how their services may be utilized. California warns that teacher-aides may not be used to increase pupil-teacher ratios; Georgia law requires the licensing of aides and includes certain rules concerning their employment.

Despite the fact that the paraprofessional movement is relatively new, there is widespread evidence of growing acceptance and institutionalization of paraprofessional programs. An NEA survey of 799 school districts across the country reported that 18% of the paraprofessional programs were funded through state and local funds alone. In Ohio, a 1970 study conducted by the Ohio Education Association revealed that 55% of the paraprofessional programs in the state were supported by state and/or local funds. This may be an indication that programs which were previously federally funded have proved successful enough that local or state governments are willing to provide funds for continued support.

The foregoing list of possible contributions that may be realized through the employment of paraprofessionals is not meant to glorify the role of the paraprofessional, for a number of problems may develop as theory becomes operational. These have been described in an earlier portion of this report and must be taken into consideration if one is to assess the paraprofessional concept fairly and realistically. The fact remains, however, that regardless of the field in which they are employed--be it medicine, law, engineering, government or education--the primary purpose of the use of the services of paraprofessionals is to respond more adequately to the needs of a diversified group of individuals. When incorporated as integral members of a professional staff, they do have the potential for making significant contributions to the educational process.

Future Trends

The future of the paraprofessional movement is difficult to predict. Its direction will depend on such factors as finances, new concepts in education and preparation of professionals, employment patterns, unionization, reciprocal state agreements, and a host of other factors that are not apparent at the present time. The past will also have a direct influence on the path the movement will take in the future, and evaluative studies now underway will have significant influence on decisions to continue or expand paraprofessional programs.

Lack of funds and swelling ranks of unemployed professionals may cause the movement to slow down or die out. On the other hand, nonprofessionals may be even more in demand in the future due to decreased funding and the resulting inability of school districts to pay for the services of qualified professionals. There is also the possibility that indigenous workers will be employed in even larger numbers as a result of increased community demands for participation and involvement in the educational process. Possibly the career ladder concept will be abolished in the future, and both professionals and nonprofessionals will be evaluated on a merit system that assesses performance rather than past training or education. The paraprofessional movement may prove to be the impetus for a total revamping of the counseling field, starting with a critical examination of counselor effectiveness, determination of techniques and methods that research shows will contribute to positive change, and a redesign of preparatory programs to include specific skills and practices to accomplish this end. This eventually would have tremendous impact on professionals, persons in training, and the training institutions themselves, for it would mean the downfall of professionalism as we know it now. Professionalism would not be determined by degrees and credits or certification alone, but would be based on the acquisition of prescribed skills and procedures and the recognized ability to use them effectively.

Some uncertainty exists as to whether paraprofessionalism is, or will be, sufficiently unified to be evaluated as a movement. The recency of the implementation of the concept, particularly in pupil personnel services, has not allowed time enough to standardize such things as training, supervision, role definition, evaluation procedures, and the like. That the movement has swept the country, however, becomes obvious as in school after school one finds paraprofessionals performing a wide variety of helping functions. Increasing numbers of programs are reporting the results of their use of auxiliary services; and this growing amount of literature, together with actual scientific assessment of program outcomes, is contributing to the movement's becoming a potent force in education.

Gluckstern (1973), developer of the program to train parents as drug counselors (Chapter Four), describes a new wave of volunteerism in our society exemplified in what the author calls "community developers." This term is used for workers who are anxious not to compete with or become servants of professionals but to serve their communities in ways that are meaningful and beneficial. In seeking means to accomplish this end, they are needful of skills and competencies that will enable them to participate in those institutions which contribute most directly to the needs of community members--for example, the school. Helping in the classroom is one way of achieving this goal; helping in guidance activities is another. Incorporating these auxiliary workers into the counseling program has the potential for enabling counselors to become more than conveyors of information or test-givers or even helpers to individuals or small groups. Instead, they can become persons who have the potential to mold the thinking and actions of entire communities.

If the paraprofessional concept flourishes and becomes an integral part of pupil personnel services, the counselor will be required in the future to view his role in a broader context. Professionals will be required to participate in the selection process, to design and implement training programs, to supervise and evaluate nonprofessionals. Counselors who firmly believe that individual and small group counseling is the prime reason for their presence in the school may not be able to accept this change. Others may balk at the selection procedure as a task foreign to their personal philosophy of what constitutes sound guidance practice. Still others may frown on the administrative detail required to launch a paraprofessional program. The professional in a volunteer program will surely expand his role to include more consultative functions as he uses his specialized skills and knowledge to assist others to participate effectively in guidance activities. As the only resident pupil personnel specialist working in the majority of the nation's schools, the counselor will have to assume the responsibility for discovering new ways to make the educational experience a positive one for as many children as possible, and counselor training experiences will have to include preparation for organizing and facilitating paraprofessional programs.

Incorporating nonprofessionals in counseling offers fascinating possibilities for the professional to explore new dimensions of professional practice, including more time to devote to activities requiring a high level of expertise: consultation with parents, faculty and support personnel; coordination of the personnel in the program; case management; and community liaison activities.

Contamination of the support role may occur if aides are employed only as a half-hearted attempt to comply with community pressures and are utilized only for clerical and routine tasks. But if, as the APGA role statement suggests, they are allowed to function at a rather sophisticated level of performance, inclusion of nonprofessionals has the potential for contributing meaningfully to the needs of the community, the school and the students.

The support personnel concept may not be the best method of responding to societal need and may be only a partial solution to problems of money and manpower, but it represents one effort toward revitalizing and expanding human services and, as such, is worthy of careful consideration.

APPENDIX

SUPPORT PERSONNEL FOR THE COUNSELOR: THEIR TECHNICAL AND NON-TECHNICAL ROLES AND PREPARATION

A STATEMENT OF POLICY

American Personnel and Guidance Association

November, 1966

Functions of the Counselor

The roles and duties of Support Personnel must be understood in relation to the Counselor, inasmuch as he is the professional person who provides both counseling and the leadership essential for effective service.[1] Counseling and leadership functions are professional in nature. That is, their effective performance requires the use of knowledge and skill acquired through intensive and extensive theoretical and applied preparation, and demonstrated competence. Formal knowledge and skill in influencing human behavior and in planning, executing, and evaluating are involved, as is accepting the responsibility for the consequences of the work performed under the Counselor's leadership. Because of this central role in the lives of other people the Counselor must adhere to a code of professional ethics.

The concept of Support Personnel for counseling implies a line relationship to the Counselor. In this context, Support Personnel does not refer to reciprocal lateral relationships between the Counselor and collaborating occupations, such as social workers, psychologists, physicians, or placement directors. Within any particular agency or organization, these would be staff, rather than line, relationships.

The Counseling Function. In performing the counseling function the Counselor works face-to-face with various individuals in dyadic and/or small group relationships. He has a sophisticated understanding of what he is doing and why. He is able to establish relationships of mutual positive regard and concomitant desire to communicate about matters of concern to counselees. He can understand counselees and the life situations in which they exist and can exercise expert judgment in the use of appropriate information and communication approaches and relationships for helping counselees understand themselves-in-situations better and to behave in ways appropriate to such understanding. The Counselor can also evaluate the counseling that he is doing and he accepts responsibility for its consequences.

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[1] It is redundant to refer to the "professional counselor," or to the "counselor performing professional functions," since to be a counselor is to belong to a profession. One may, of course, refer to a counselor performing technical and non-technical duties.

Leadership Functions. The Counselor's leadership functions involve working indirectly with counselees by seeking or providing consultative help with other persons. They also include the coordinating and supervision of the efforts of Support Personnel who facilitate counseling by performing various direct and indirect helping and/or supportive activities. Many of these activities are sometimes called guidance, and they may be performed by members of other occupations.

In all of these counseling, facilitative, consultative, and supervisory endeavors, the Counselor's major responsibility is to assist each counselee "...to utilize his own resources and his environmental opportunities in the process of self-understanding, planning, decision-making, and coping with problems relative to his developmental need and behavior." [2] Of necessity, this responsibility must be executed with appropriate consideration of the context of cultural and subcultural influences directly related to the various settings in which such individuals and/or groups are currently operating or may be expected to operate in the future.

The Rationale for Support Personnel for Counselors. It is the position of the Association that Support Personnel can enhance the work of the Counselor with such assistance as the counselees' needs and the work setting may require, provided that these Support Personnel perform their duties under the supervision of the Counselor. The concept of Support Personnel is not new. What is new is the systematic programming of such roles.

The appropriate use of Support Personnel will facilitate the professional work and effectiveness of the Counselor. Because of the work of Support Personnel, other demands upon the Counselor's time should no longer distract him from providing the counseling and leadership for which he is uniquely suited. The combined efforts of Support Personnel and Counselors should make the total endeavor more propitious and powerful.

It is the purpose of this document to identify the principles and concepts that undergird the roles and preparation of Support Personnel.

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[2] APGA. "The Counselor: Professional Preparation and Role." 1964

There is no intention of providing detailed job descriptions for the work of Support Personnel. This document, however, should provide guidelines for the development of such job descriptions.

Distinctions between Support Personnel and Counselors

The activities of Support Personnel afford contrasts to the work of Counselors. Support activities are called technical and non-technical.[3] The term, technical, implies more rationalized processes based upon some formal academic preparation, whereas non-technical implies more informal and rule-of-thumb techniques that need not be acquired through academic preparation. Both terms also imply a range of credit or non-credit preparation that is appropriate to the technical activities to be performed.

In general, the activities of Support Personnel differ from professional work in any or all of several respects:

First, the work of a Counselor constitutes a whole that is greater than the sum of its parts. The work of Support Personnel tends toward the particular and is part of the larger whole only when viewed in conjunction with other functions and activities.

Second, the Counselor bases his performance on the use of relevant theory, authoritative knowledge of effective procedures, and his evaluation of the impact of his work. Support Personnel work is characterized by greater dependence upon intuitive judgment, little or no theoretical background, more limited preparation, and less comprehensive understanding of the total endeavor.

For example, the dissemination of information about occupational trends and the requirements of specific occupations will be qualitatively different activities when conducted by a Counselor than when conducted by Support Personnel. A Counselor will be able to select the particular kinds of information that are most appropriate for the counselee to use, to concern himself with what the information would mean to the counselee and to work with him on the basis of what that information means to the counselee. A Support person, however, would be able to provide the counselee information recommended by the Counselor, and to see that it is readily available for use as needed.

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[3] For present purposes, a logical grouping of activities or duties comprises a function. The pattern of these defines the job of a person, and the expectations held for the performance of such activities (functions) defines a role. Different jobs and occupational roles will result from differing combinations of functions or activities.

Third, the Counselor performs the counseling function as described above, while Support Personnel perform important and necessary related activities that are parts of the overall service.

Fourth, in some instances functions can be organized so that they are performed only by the Counselor; in other instances, the functions can be arranged so that Support Personnel may perform activities that help with his work. In either case, it is clearly the Counselor's responsibility to decide how these duties or tasks will be performed by qualified Support Personnel.

Fifth, career patterns must also be considered in delineating between the Counselor and Support Personnel. Support Personnel jobs may or may not be terminal. They are not stepping stones to the profession of Counselor without appropriate professional preparation.

Typical Activities of Support Personnel

The role of the Counselor is subtly but constantly changing, a fact that is characteristic of any dynamic profession. Since the definition of roles for Support Personnel is dependent on their relationship to the Counselor's role, it is inevitable that Support Personnel roles will change, too. Today, however, it is advisable to consider an analysis of the total complex of roles and responsibilities involved, in order to identify supporting activities or duties which may be performed satisfactorily by Support Personnel rather than by the Counselor. Such activities or duties are related to specific clusters, which may be called functions in the total complex of the professional role.

The performance of identified activities by Support Personnel will contribute to the work of the Counselor. Sometimes the tasks that Support Counselors are assigned are tasks not usually assigned to persons who are working in Support Personnel positions. The Counselor is nevertheless, responsible for the supervision of such supporting tasks. On other occasions, enough supporting activities can be logically related to constitute a full-time Support Personnel position.

Direct Helping Relationships. A number of Support Personnel activities involve direct person-to-person helping relationships, but they are not identical or equivalent to counseling as conducted by the Counselor. Prominent among these functions and activities would be the following.

1. Individual Interviewing Function:

   a. Secure information from an interviewee by means of a semi-structured or structured interview schedule. The information elicited would tend to be factual and limited in nature.

   b. Give information prepared in advance and approved by the Counselor for its appropriateness for the interviewee. Such information would usually be factual rather than interpretative.

   c. Explain the purposes and procedures of counseling in practical lay terms.

   d. Engage the counselee in informal, casual, colloquial discussion as a means of putting him at ease and establishing an openness to counseling. Such a dyadic activity may be especially important when performed by an interviewer who is making initial contact with potential counselees who are hostile toward or apprehensive of counseling.

   e. Provide informal follow-up support to a former counselee.

2. Small-Group Interviewing or Discussion Function:

   a. In structured groups with a largely preplanned program, guide discussions as a discussion leader.

   b. Describe staff and material available to the group, as an information resource person, or tell the group how and where to acquire needed resources.

   c. Act as recorder in a variety of small group discussion or counseling situations, under the supervision of the Counselor.

   d. Observe verbal and non-verbal interaction in groups, following predetermined cues and procedures for making observations.

   e. Participate in informal superficial social conversation in a small group of counselees to help put them at ease and to establish the beginning of helping relationships that may be provided by forthcoming counseling.

   f. Informally provide information and support to former counselees.

   g. Circulate among people who may be potential counselees and

and strive to develop attitudes of group cohesion and good orientation for educational and/or recreational ends.

Indirect Helping Relationships. Most of the activities of Support Personnel appear to involve providing help indirectly rather than directly to counselees, even though some of these activities do involve face-to-face relationships with counselees. Among the functions and activities may be these:

1. Information Gathering and Processing Function:
   - a. Administer, score, and profile routine standardized tests and other appraisal instruments (non-clinical type).
   - b. Obtain and maintain routine information on the scope and character of the world of work with current reference to employment trends, in accordance with instructions established by the Counselor.
   - c. Contact various sources for needed records and related information relevant to counseling.
   - d. Search for new sources of information about counselees and/or the environment under direction of the Counselor.
   - e. Prepare educational, occupational, and personal-social information for visual-auditory,verbal and graphic presentation or transmittal to others for use, in accordance with instructions established by the Counselor.
   - f. Under the Counselor's supervision, search for new sources to which the counselee may be referred.
   - g. Secure specific special information about former counselees upon request and under the supervision of the Counselor.
   - h. Operate technical communications media involving printed and electronic processes of a visual-auditory nature for the counselee's benefit.
2. Referral Function:
   - a. Initiate general contacts with specific referral agencies.
   - b. Initiate contact for specific individuals with given referral agencies.
   - c. Aid individuals in making proper contact with referral agencies.
3. Placement and Routine Follow-up Function:

a. Through appropriate channels, establish and maintain working relationships with organized placement agencies in the community.

b. Develop specific placement opportunities for individual cases not handled through cooperation with other placement agencies.

c. Maintain continuous surveys of placement conditions and trends as requested by the Counselor.

d. Search for new placement resources that may be useful to counselees.

e. Secure follow-up information of a routine nature according to a general follow-up plan.

4. Program Planning and Management Function:

   a. Perform routine collecting and analytical statistical operations as a research assistant.

   b. Procure and prepare supplies of materials of various sorts for the Counselor.

   c. Prepare standardized reports of contacts with counselees, potential counselees, referral, placement, and follow-up agencies and persons.

   d. Maintain appropriate personnel and information records for the Counselor.

   e. Supervise and coordinate the activities of clerical or other skilled personnel under the general supervision of the Counselor.

The Preparation of Support Personnel

The preparation of Support Personnel will vary according to a number of factors. Among those that must be considered are the following:

1. People who wish to become Support Personnel must be selected for their potential ability to perform specific duties, and their suitability for working with counselees in particular settings. Selection must not be restricted to those who may be capable of earning advanced degrees. Such people will come from a wide variety of educational and experience backgrounds. It may be possible to find people who already possess the necessary competencies.

2. The duration of preparation for Support Personnel will be fairly brief compared to that of the Counselor, that is, a matter of weeks or months, compared to years. As a general rule, the preparation of technical Support Personnel will be more extensive than that of non-technical Support Personnel.

3. The activities to be learned may be rather concrete and specific. In those cases there need be relatively little instruction of a background, theoretical, or philosophical nature. There may be a necessary emphasis upon frequent practice or drill. The preparation must utilize field settings and/or laboratory simulations.

4. At least the final portions of a preparation program must involve opportunities to work under the field supervision of Counselors. There should be supervised preparation as members of a team of Support Personnel.

5. The staff for Support Personnel preparation programs should include experienced, highly successful Support Personnel, Counselors, and Counselor Educators.

6. It would be advantageous to Support Personnel preparation programs and to Counselor Education programs, if they can be coordinated in terms of content, time, and physical proximity.

______for the P. P. S. Committee: Emery Kennedy
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